

The CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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No. 5

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College Achievement of Public- versus Private-High-School Graduates . . .
Teachers Face Student Resistance . . . Our Schools: Which Way Now?

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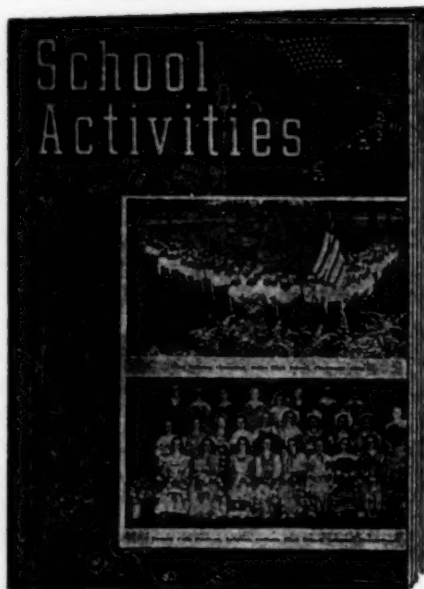
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TOUGH COURSES

By J. R. SHANNON

CHARLES DANA GIBSON, creator of the popular Gibson Girl of fifty years ago, produced a cartoon, copyrighted in 1894, entitled, "Why Is It Always Thus?" The picture showed six beautiful young women and one man admiring an athlete at dinner, while the guest of honor sat neglected. Then this: "The entertainment is given in honor of the distinguished scientist who sits by the table, but the real favorite is the famous hurdle jumper, who happens to be sober this evening."¹ Another creation in the same collection, copyrighted a year later, showed a football game and was entitled, "The Leading Features of a Liberal Education."

Current critics of education—some sincere and some sinister—persistently extol the virtues of academic life at the time they or their fathers were degree seekers, and be-

wail what they call modern progressive education. "Those were the good old days when substantial education was supreme." But Charles Dana Gibson, a contemporary of John Dewey, did not think so. Dewey, at the time of Gibson's criticisms, was not nearly so well known as the cartoonist, and William H. Kilpatrick was only in his early twenties. "Progressive education" was unheard of, and all high-school courses were "tough."

Now just what is this "tough" stuff? Let an educator who was born the same year Gibson copyrighted his "Leading Features of a Liberal Education" sound off in first person on some of his experiences and observations.

When I entered high school, in one of Indiana's larger cities, the entire program of studies, in terms of Carnegie units, consisted of: English, 4; Latin, 4; German, 4; elementary algebra, 1½; college algebra, 1; plane geometry, 1; solid geometry, ½; trigonometry, ½; physics, 1; chemistry, 1½; botany, 1; physiology, 1; general science, ½; ancient history, 1; medieval and modern history, 1; United States history, 1. These were all "tough" courses, but in addition to them were smatterings of music and art for fractional credit.

But were the "tough" courses tough? Toughness depends mostly on pupils' interest and teachers' competence. First-semester plane geometry, under Sarah Scott, most definitely was not tough; I was perhaps the

EDITOR'S NOTE

Wouldn't it be interesting if some of the severest critics of our secondary schools had to face classes five times a day five days a week and actually teach them? Maybe the general plea for making curriculum and teaching tougher would be better tested then.

And how about the "good old days"? Were schools and subjects "hard" then? Was the school of 1900 tougher than the 1959 model? These questions lead right into the context of the article by our old CH friend, J. R. Shannon, who lives in Del Mar, California. What he writes sounds sensible and for good reason: He has had a lot of experience.

¹ *The Gibson Book*, Vol. I. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1906 (pages unnumbered).

best pupil in the class, and I never studied more than ten minutes a day. Second-semester plane geometry was less interesting and more difficult; and my teacher in that course was the only weakling in the mathematics department. Also, by the time I got into that class—in the eleventh grade—I was deeply engrossed in football and other school activities. Elementary algebra, under Grace Riehle, took only about thirty minutes a day, and again I was one of the best in the class. Solid geometry found me somewhat less interested and less successful, although I had a superior teacher in the person of A. E. Highley. By that time I was still more deeply involved in campus activities. College algebra and trigonometry came when I was inordinately engaged in extracurricular activities, and my dwindling success in the subjects showed it. Again, though, I had a superior teacher, Edward E. Hylton.

Latin? I flunked it flat, although I worked more hours a week on it than on all other subjects combined. I do not say "studied"; I never learned how to study Latin—and I didn't want to learn. I hated the subject, and to this day I envy Brutus his opportunity to assassinate Caesar. But when I later became a school superintendent and employed Ruth Jackson as Latin teacher, I complimented her by saying that if I had had her as my teacher fifteen years earlier, I believe I would have liked Latin and succeeded in it.

English went along all right under B. A. Ogden, Anna Hayward, and Eva Rumbley, although I learned to dislike novels (especially those by Sir Walter Scott). History, both as to the subject and the teachers, was dull. But when I was a senior in college, I got into a history class under William O. Lynch, my first good teacher in the subject, and made an "A," and I wept because I had not had the delectable experience early enough to encourage me to major in it.

That history course, more than any other single experience I ever had, taught me

what we mean by "tough." I spent more hours a week on that course than on any other—not because I felt compelled to but because I enjoyed it! Compare that with my Latin. Compare it with my year of high-school physics, which I also found difficult but in which I had a weak teacher and a poorly equipped laboratory.

Before I advanced to the twelfth grade, industrial arts (called "manual training" in those days) and commerce were added to the program of studies in my high school. I enrolled in industrial arts, not that I cared especially for the subject, but because I had nourished a worshipful attitude toward the teacher, James E. Ewers, whom I had learned to admire in ninth-grade general science. And I found the subject tough. The woodworking portions of it taxed my motor abilities, and the mechanical-drawing portions taxed both my motor and mental abilities.

However, I did not fall for typewriting, but looked upon it with disdain. Numerous times later, especially during my years of graduate work, I kicked myself for not having taken typewriting in high school. Therefore, I encouraged all my sons to take typewriting, and had to coerce one to do so. (That is the only time I ever told any of my children that he must elect any particular course.) And how that boy hated typing! He kept complaining that he wanted courses in which he learned with his head and not with his fingers. To him, typewriting was tough. He graduated from high school at the age of 16½, and typing was his only "tough course." (During his years of graduate study, incidentally, he thanked me for pressing him into typing ten years earlier.)

That boy also found football tough, whereas I had found it relatively easy in the same high school. The difference lay in the fact that grade for grade he was more than two years younger than I. He was less mature physically, and competition was tougher for him. But the experience

did not make the boy sour toward football. Twenty years after he finished high school, he resigned a professorship in Teachers College, Columbia University, to go to the University of Wisconsin. Early in his first season in Wisconsin he wrote his dad, "There's a football game this afternoon, and there was one last Saturday. Seems good to be on a campus with athletic contests worth attending."

Although that relatively unsuccessful football player did not become soured on football, many others do. Much of the griping about scholastic athletics, from the time of Charles Dana Gibson to the present, is from men who could not make the team.

It is characteristic for successful performers in any field to look upon their field as God's elect and upon others as inferior. Businessmen call scholars eggheads; scholars call athletes blockheads; and athletes call businessmen hardheads.

Since Sputniks I and II, panic-stricken Americans have been crying for more scientists and engineers and for a return to "tough courses" in high school. (Parenthetically, Sputnik III seems to have left us numb.) But I can remember when the same elements in American society were crying for additions to the high-school program of studies in the form of vocational education, civic education, character education, physical and health education, safety education, driver education. We ridicule the U.S.S.R. for its frequent and quick shifts in "the party line," but aren't we guilty of the same thing?

A recent textbook in secondary-school administration² says: "Since about 1900, the high school, along with other institutions and aspects of our society, has been subjected to increased pressures arising from a number of changes and shifts in social and economic conditions. More recently, the high school has also felt the effects of the

shift in the concept of its function that has accompanied the popularization of secondary education in this country."

A quarter of a century earlier one of America's leading philosophers of education³ said: "The school is the social institution made to care for all that would otherwise be neglected. You may not like it, but it is a fact. The school is the residuary legatee so far as concerns social institutions."

The school is the residuary legatee of society, willy-nilly. If society wants one type of course stressed in school at one time and some other type stressed at another, it gets it, and the democratic theory asserts that it should. Perhaps, however, it needs some long-range scale of values and criteria to help it determine what is of most worth.

Therefore, what about this "tough" stuff? Six things:

(1) What is tough or easy depends largely on pupil interest and teacher competence. Interest begets effort more than effort begets interest. The teacher has much to do in stimulating interest. Effort without interest is drudgery; effort with interest is whole-hearted work. People are happy when they succeed at what they do, and vice versa. Practice with success is an old dictum in education.

(2) Pupil competence is another factor in "toughness." This includes so-called native intelligence, neuromuscular co-ordination, degree of maturity, and a number of special endowments, such as musical aptitude. What is tough for some pupils is easy for others, and vice versa. The pupil with a high I.Q. will excel pupils with a low I.Q. in any field of endeavor, other things being equal. But the same rule holds for any other general or special endowment.

(3) What adults call "tough courses," looking back over their school days, too frequently proves to be areas in which they succeeded and others failed. What they call

² French, Will; Hull, J. Dan; and Dodds, B. L. *American High School Administration* (New York: Rinehart and Co., Inc., 1951), p. 303.

³ Kilpatrick, William H., *Foundations of Method* (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1925), p. 261.

"soft courses," similarly, proves to be areas in which others succeeded and they failed. Each critic lets his prejudices or individual successes and failures show when he brands something as tough. We always have had "tough courses" and "soft courses" and always will, depending on who does the evaluating.

(4) Toughness per se is neither a virtue nor an indictment. The writer often smiles on recalling an experience he had as a school superintendent thirty-five years ago. He was trying to sell his school board on the idea of buying some visual-education equipment, when one board member remarked, "Professor, aren't you likely to make learning too easy?"

(5) According to the theory underlying American education, the public—which usually proves to be some pressure group—has a right to order what the schools shall teach. At one time these demands constitute what later critics will label as either "tough" or "soft." With the division of labor characteristic of modern society, we need all these areas of interest. What is of most value at a given time or place depends on circumstances.

(6) We need long-term criteria or points of view in deciding what knowledge is of most worth, but to go into that at this time is too big an order. In the meantime, to talk about "tough courses" or "soft courses" seems more or less silly.



The School Secretary

By JOHN H. TREANOR
Boston, Massachusetts

Worth cultivating, my friends. Generally efficient, wise beyond her years, accommodating, a friend in need, and often a buffer between your shortcomings and the principal's wrath. We have known young teachers who believed they could fool the principal, none who presumed to bamboozle the secretary.

How does the secretary enter your life? *Attendez, mes enfants.* She makes out the payroll. She notes your tardiness and absences. She discovers, alas all too soon, that you cannot add the number of your pupils and divide by the number of sessions. She reminds you of the report due yesterday, and where's that seed money? She finds excuses for your forgetfulness, extenuations for your blunders, palliations for your stu-

pidities. Withal, and here the rubrics are unmistakable, she knows just how much and how little you contribute to the welfare of the school. It's her business to know. She knows.

Hence, if now and again her peremptory finger rattles the buzzer of your placid schoolroom, if too frequently her ubiquitous messengers demand instant recognition, if her voice reflects occasional crises—lend a patient recognition to her intrinsic worth. You will profit by the compliance. For we have known the principal to be absent without apparent disarray, but when the secretary is out the shambles is newsworthy.

Be companionable to your fellow teacher, but in the case of the secretary be almost affectionate. 'Twill not be love's labor lost.

Teachers Face Student Resistance

By JUNE DIEMER

TEEN-AGERS BRING INTO THE CLASSROOM an entirely different attitude than their parents did a generation ago, and it is grief to the teacher who expects the student to act as the teacher did when he went to school. Too much has happened. A new approach to raising a child has produced a different child. These students bring their Bill of Rights with them to school. They have their right to be heard, their right to their own opinion, their right to question authority and facts. A child who has spent his life being allowed to experience and make decisions, expects this freedom everywhere—school being no exception. And whereas in our day, particularly in junior and senior high schools, it was more the practice merely to put the material in

front of the student and expect him to memorize it, calling upon his habits of respect, obedience, and unquestioning acceptance, today it is the teacher who is called upon—called upon to be increasingly inventive, convincing, and tolerant. As the perspective on knowledge itself changed with the dropping of a bomb, so the teaching of knowledge must change; as the student has changed, so the teacher must.

Students are more experienced than they were a generation ago. Their whole early environment has been one which encouraged early learning; even their toys were educational. Their actual intelligence quotients may be no higher than their parents', but they have matured socially in a shorter period of time; they are better able to take care of themselves; they have been freer to explore wide areas and more situations earlier, and they are more prepared to make decisions based on more experiences. And through the particular medium of television they have been exposed to a vast amount of education, whether good or bad. They are more selective, more critical, and, therefore, more intelligent—assuming that intelligence means the child's knowing how to handle experience and knowledge.

A more intelligent student requires a more intelligent teacher, and here also the assumption is that intelligence means the teacher's ability to handle knowledge and experience. What happened to the teacher's command of his information on August 12, 1945? Can he ever again stand in front of his class and say, "This is what you'll need to know"? We no longer represent a stable society. One may now question a teacher's decisions of what is important for his student to learn, and, unlike yesterday, there is a much greater chance that what a student learns today may be obsolete tomorrow.

EDITOR'S NOTE

For years, we have been moving away from what H. H. Giles calls regurgitative learning in the classroom, in which the teacher prescribes and students swallow. We prefer that type of classroom learning which centers on problem solving and questioning by the students. The teacher has more and more become a director of learning rather than a dispenser of learning. There are occasions, however, when students have taken literally the invitation to doubt, challenge, and question the instructor. In some instances, this is revealed in an attitude on the part of the student which says to the teacher, "I dare you to teach me!" In this kind of situation, the teacher has to persuade the student that he should learn and thus overcome his resistance to learn.

This is the point of view expressed by the author in this article. She is the dean of girls at a brand new school, the Silverado Junior High School in Napa, California.

row. Students sense this vagueness and they question and resist.

There was a time, not too long ago, when a teacher could teach successfully if equipped only with his subject-matter knowledge; much information, then, was static and the student learned statically. To put information before a student now and expect him to learn unquestioningly is folly. Teen-agers today do not "buy" readily.

In addition to their awareness of the continuing temporariness of affairs, international and personal, particularly with military service facing the boys and the uncertainties in this approaching space age, and with a belief that they don't really have time to learn, teen-agers are bringing to the classroom another attitude which is a direct carry-over from infancy.

"Self-demand" has graduated from the crib to the classroom. This was a style of infant feeding to which millions of American parents subscribed, whereby the infant was fed according to the schedule he set for himself as his needs dictated. It was in direct contrast to the "schedule method" which immediately preceded self-demand and which prescribed that the baby should be given a bottle on schedule, whether he wanted or needed it, on the hours around the clock at exactly 10:00, 2:00, 6:00, and 10:00. The schedule baby met the needs of the schedule; the self-demand baby let the bottle fit his need.

Self-demand, which recognized the newborn baby as being an individual with individual needs, different possibly from the needs of other babies, is still the principal pattern used in child raising. It is not limited strictly to the demands of nutritional appetite; it is carried over to many desires, and parents are continually on the lookout for what they might interpret as being needs which they, as parents, feel obliged to direct and meet. And the infant grown to teen-ager expects no change in the ratio. It is the student, he feels, whose needs must be met by the teacher; the student is not in

the classroom to meet the needs of the teacher. Only defeat faces the teacher who attempts to force information without first "selling" his students on the needs, as forcing children to memorize at the threat of failure, punishment, or insult is defeat.

The real demand on the teacher today is not so much in managing the overcrowded classroom, not in physically surviving the stacks of papers each night. The real demand is in overcoming the resistance he faces. More and more papers and bulletins and books are written on discipline, all with some hope that the student will do what the teacher tells him without noisy argument. But the difficulty—the strain—is not in disciplining the student for lack of co-operation, but in breaking down the resistance of the potential learner. The role has reversed itself in the classroom because students have grown up with rights to question and rights to resist what they feel no need for, and the teacher is consequently often on the defensive. He is today less and less a source of information and more and more a stimulus to learning, and while he can't stop being a source, he can't teach successfully if that's all he is.

Teachers do not like to regard themselves as salesmen or showmen, and yet teaching now requires the utmost of persuasive skills if students are going to feel the need for the teacher's product. How does a salesman get his customer to buy? How does he convince his customer that the customer *needs* his product? Can he succeed without knowing his customers' sensitivities, without making plans beforehand to break down buyer resistance? A good salesman seizes the exact moment when the customer has finished answering his own questions about the product, has finished investigating his own experience, or lack of it, with this product, and will either accept or reject it, depending of course upon its cost and the customer's need. Capitalizing on the moment of sale, timing, and showmanship are techniques equally of successful teaching

and successful salesmanship, for the teacher, in recognizing the exact moment and using whatever devices his ingenuity permits him—even being willing to sacrifice his own concept of himself as an adult in front of children to get his point across—is here little different from the salesman in selling his product. And if there is no buying, there has been no selling; if there is no learning, there has been no teaching.

But while the technique is similar, the profit to salesman and teacher is different. To the salesman it is money and the satisfaction of having made a sale. To some teachers it is only money, but to the teacher who makes a successful sale, the profit is the student's learning.

The burden of proof of performance which used to be entirely on the student is now also on the teacher—on the teacher to break down the student's resistance without using high-pressure techniques, for high-pressure methods are dead—in the classroom and out. Customers, in the classroom and out, are more intelligent, and high-pressure methods are an insult to intelligence. There is no lasting learning nor are there any repeat sales from people who may eventually feel they were talked into something they didn't need. The buyer is convinced by the salesman *only at the consent of the customer*. We no longer try to get people to buy without thinking. The "pitch" is directed at the needs of the customer and is changed many ways to fit many different customers.

The total effect of this attitude, this difference in student-teacher relationship where the balance of power frequently swings in favor of the student, is felt pri-

marily by the teacher, who either succeeds or fails depending on whether he recognizes the difference, and whether he is capable of and willing to use the techniques necessary to teach in the face of resistance, whether he is willing to concede that it is now he, the teacher, who must come to the student.

For this group of teen-agers is only the first of a long line of children that we look forward to seeing in school who also were raised by the self-demand method, who also have been treated as individuals with individual personalities, needs, rights, opinions, and problems equal in importance to their parents'. We've come a long way from the Old World tradition of child raising, which dictated that children should be seen and not heard, and it's questionable whether we will ever again revert to the raising of children with the rod rather than with understanding. But in the meantime, the first generation of teen-agers so raised, confronts, challenges, and sometimes defeats the classroom teacher.

The teen-ager is not about to change, to be something he has never been, to react contrary to his own opinion of himself. In our system of compulsory mass education, if the junior-high or high-school teacher is to survive, he will have to be equipped more with methods for persuasion and less with methods for discipline, he will have to be increasingly ready to desert the stereotype of himself, to accept the realization that he doesn't have to be boss in order to be teacher, and he can't be above using whatever particular techniques of good salesmanship will help him succeed, so that he can teach, so that his students can learn.

Greater continuity in the study of subjects should serve to link elementary and secondary schools more closely together. The once-held idea that reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling were subjects solely for the elementary school is no longer any more valid than is the conception that foreign language, algebra, biology are studies only for high school.—*California Journal of Secondary Education*.

Down with Report-Card Blues

By LELAND S. MARCH

ONE OF THE MOST UNPLEASANT episodes in the life of a teacher or principal can come from the reaction of a parent, or group of parents, who are unhappy over the report cards received by their children. Most educators have experienced this to a greater or less degree. Frequently there is considerable justice on both the side of the irate parent and the harassed, defensive teacher. The principal is sailing between Scylla and Charybdis because he must support the teacher, lock, stock, and barrel, or forfeit the respect and confidence of the entire staff. Also, he must likewise support the parent or parents, or else they will take his scalp and burn him at the stake. That is indeed a mild understatement of what "postreport-card blues" can be.

The lesson to be learned from the above situation is not how to *solve* the dilemma but how to *prevent* it from occurring in the

first place. Let us consider a few tried and true techniques of avoiding getting our professional neck pinched in this particular cleft stick.

Remove the Secrecy from Marks

The one situation which seems to cause more irritation in the mind of a parent than any other related to the academic progress of his child is complacently to believe that Junior has actually been doing well and then suddenly be confronted with a "failure." The typical father is not only surprised, he is angry as if he had stepped on a rake in the dark and the handle had rapped him in the face. Anger must have a target, so the teacher gets the blame. If the boy maintains he is surprised too, Dad's blood pressure mounts and the war paint goes on.

The first simple technique is to insist that students take their papers home and bring them back with the parents' signatures. It is doubtful if there will be any more forged signatures than with report cards. Also, it rather dampens the powder in the parent's weapons to be shown, calmly and courteously, a collection of Sonny Boy's failing papers with Daddy's name signed to each.

To remove further the secrecy and mystery from the mark the student is going to receive, it is a good practice for each teacher to show his students the collection of marks from which the final mark is to be derived before the mark is recorded as final. Each student should be allowed to compute his own mark, if he wishes, for comparison with that given by the teacher. Any mark which cannot be thus exposed to public view cannot be defended. This should be done far enough in advance of the passing out of report cards to allow time to rectify

EDITOR'S NOTE

When we went to school, report-card day was a time for apprehension. The report came to us deus ex machina, and a first glance elated or depressed us, or did a little of each. We suppose that the reason for this condition was that there was much secrecy in the marking system and that students did not participate except as recipients. Nowadays, it is different in most schools. How to prevent the "report-card blues" from occurring is of some concern to principals, teachers, and students. The author has done a good job in analyzing and removing the irritation in the "blues." After many years as principal, city superintendent, and assistant county superintendent, he has returned to the role of classroom teacher at H. B. Plant High School, Tampa, Florida.

any errors, omissions, or mistakes. Teachers have been known to forget to record a make-up test or a special report, or even to err in adding up and averaging the scores. There is less embarrassment in finding an error before the card goes home than afterwards. Plan a lesson which will keep everybody busy, then call the students to your desk, one at a time. An approach which produces a good reaction is to tell the class, "I want each of you to see your record, and to check with me to see that your final mark will include all you have done. You may figure your own mark if you wish." Then briefly explain the school's or your method of computing marks. The fact that you are willing for them to do this will get practically every student on your side as far as marks are concerned. It is one of the best builders of *en rapport* between teacher and class yet discovered. It is also excellent "hurricane insurance" against possible stormy weather. For example, one boy told me after receiving an "F," "I told the old man it would do no good for him to come to school and give you the Old Harry, because I had figured my own mark myself, and that was it." Any marks which cannot be shown to the parent or to the student who earned them should not be in the teacher's rank book.

To remove the secrecy and mystery from marks does not mean showing everybody's mark to everybody else. The college practice of posting a class roll on the bulletin board with each student's test score published for the world to read is a questionable practice in the public school. It is easy to make a cardboard window with a slot in a piece of cardboard. The slot is wide enough to show only one student's marks, and long enough to show the whole marking period record. The cardboard should be wide enough above and below the slot to mask three or four students' marks each way. It is good for class morale during the last half of the marking period to invite all members to figure their own marks from

time to time, and to insist that all borderline students become familiar with their status.

Base the Mark on Objective Evidence— Not on Teacher Opinion Alone

The essay-type examination should not be the sole evidence upon which a student's mark is based—if it is humanly possible to avoid it. Admittedly, a course in creative writing would be difficult to evaluate by completely objective tests. However, if a teacher really puts his mind to the problem, an objective evaluation can be developed for the great majority of subjects studied in school.

Every educator is familiar with the research results found when a set of essay-type papers were corrected by a number of teachers, and the wide differences in value placed on the same papers by different teachers. The range stretched from *A* to *F* on some papers. Is it any wonder that we have "report-card blues" at times?

Regardless of the type of tests used, the evidence should be plentiful and recorded in the teacher's rank book. A student or parent is justifiably unhappy if a low mark is based on just one or two incidents during the entire marking period. Compare this with eight, ten, or twelve marks, and the student and parent must accept such overwhelming proof of the level of work achieved by the student for that particular marking period.

Basically, the student and parent want, and should receive, unequivocal justice. A low mark based on subjective opinion always opens the door to the feeling on the part of the recipient that the teacher *may* have been influenced by unsatisfactory behavior on the part of the student. Objective tests, corrected from a key, remove all suspicion that personality friction could have influenced the mark. The inclusion of enough objective evaluations to control the mark takes the burden off the use of a few essay-type tests, when included.

Give the Parent a Chance to Help

An actual conference with a parent whose son failed to be graduated with his class is etched indelibly in my memory. As the father expressed it; "If we could have been warned each time Junior was in danger of failing a subject, in time for us to have done something about it, perhaps we might have helped more." That school had a philosophical belief that the sudden shock of receiving a failing mark would "wake up" a student to work harder. In this case, the policy failed, and the parent made a reasonable point. At least, previous warnings would have been better public relations, and might have prevented the creation of a family group hostile to the whole school program. You cannot build a house without making some chips, and a school is bound to have some "chips" fall by the wayside as failures in spite of all we can do. But let us use parental support to the limit. It will save some youngsters from becoming "chips" cast aside with the rubbish.

It should be an unbreakable rule that no failure for a marking period be given a student unless the parents are notified in writing several weeks ahead of the giving out of the report cards. If a borderline student slips by without warning, only to slump and deserve a failing mark, or if some wise guy reasons that because his parents got no warning he will pass anyway, then give them an incomplete for the period with a special note going to the parent explaining the circumstances, with a closing statement to the effect that ". . . Unless marked improvement is shown in the next two weeks a failure will be given for the past marking period." Then give an honest, stiff, make-up test which will remove all doubt of the real status of the student and place him among the sheep or the goats, passing or failing.

Soft pedagogy has no place in American education, but every student is entitled to receive justice.

Keep the Academic and Conduct Marks Separate

If Satan himself enrolled in a school and raised Cain in every class until it was necessary for the board of education to send him home by expelling him, the school records should also show his academic marks as *A* in whatever courses he actually did *A* level work. There have been cases where teachers deliberately "flunked out" the troublemakers, and some schools dropped off per cents of the mark for certain offenses. This is of doubtful efficacy because the behavior problems generally are not interested in marks and feel little pain at getting a *C* instead of a *B*.

It is a poor report card which reports only the academic success or failure of the pupil to the home. The habits of work, attitude in class, the truthfulness, the amount of effort expended, and other social characteristics of a student are better criteria of his chances for success in life than the simple academic record. In fact, if the attitude, effort, study habits, and so on are satisfactory, the academic marks will take care of themselves. Desirable as high marks are, we must face the fact that the ability and willingness to work hard, to drive themselves at unpleasant tasks, the ability to work well with other people and be reliable, trustworthy men and women have produced more top leaders than Phi Beta Kappa keys—where these personality and social characteristics have been lacking. Good social and personal characteristics are the roots from which success grows, including academic success.

It is more important that a parent know how and why his son earned an *A* or an *F*, than merely that that was the level of his work in a particular subject for a specified number of weeks. Some students make an *A* by working at half speed. Another boy nearly kills himself to earn a *D* or *C*. The parents of both students should be informed so that a program for the

brilliant student can be enriched at home and at school, and the conscientious but slow student will not be driven beyond his ability by zealous, but uninformed parents.

The Fractional Mark

The fractional mark is a sort of middle ground between the two-page report card with scholastic marks on one page and social and personality traits evaluated on the other. It is possible to report so much to the parent that his attention is spread too thin, so that the volume of the report defeats much of its purpose. Also, an elementary teacher generally has one group all day and can accurately evaluate both academic and social traits. The secondary school makes for itself a gigantic clerical ordeal if it attempts to report either the group opinion of all the teachers of one pupil as to his social and personality characteristics, or the individual opinion of each teacher if a battery of traits is attempted. The cumbersomeness of the task is apt to raise the cost in time and effort higher than the benefit returned to parent and staff.

The fractional mark usually consists of having the academic achievement written as the numerator, and the two personality and social characteristics most influencing scholastic success (attitude and effort) written as the denominator. For example, *B over D* in algebra I means that Johnny is doing *B* level work in algebra I, but his attitude in class and the effort he expends on algebra I are unsatisfactory. The obvious conclusion from that combination, which the teacher is trying to report to the parent, is that although Johnny is getting a *B* in algebra I, he could do much better if he would stop fooling around in class and work harder. Suppose Johnny's sister, Mary, is getting *C over A* (*C/A*), also in algebra I. This should tell the parent that Mary is working at the top of her capacity and *C* is all she is capable of doing. When two children in the same family are taking the same subject, the one getting the lower mark generally

catches trouble from the parents, if only the achievement mark is reported. If you were the parent, and Johnny brought home a *B/D*, and Mary got *C/A*, both in algebra I, which would you scold and which would you praise? Would not the denominator mark evaluating Johnny's and Mary's attitude and effort in class help you to understand and help them succeed in school?

Conclusion

It is considered intelligent administration of classroom or school to plan ahead so that discipline cases never arise as serious problems. Just so, many "postreport-card blues" can be solved by advance planning to eliminate their causes.

The element of surprise when a low mark comes home is probably the principal cause of parental resentment and emotional upset. This unfortunate reaction is augmented when the student is also surprised, or pretends to be surprised, at the low marks. Therefore, students and parents should be kept well informed, especially if the mark is going to be low. No failures should ever be reported unless the parents have received previous warning.

A feeling that the child has been failed without the parents' having had an opportunity to bring all their influence to bear is another factor which upsets parents. Therefore, some type of policy should be adopted calling for several weeks of advance notice that the student is in danger of failing. This should be sent in writing. Last minute failures, and smart-aleck attempts of unwarned students to loaf after warnings to others have gone home are easily cared for as described above.

When teachers use completely subjective, personal opinion as the basis of academic evaluation, the suspicion of personal bias makes trouble. The cure is to change to at least enough objective-type tests to weight the mark sufficiently to eliminate possibility of bias. Also, have a lot of evidences of the student's achievement in the rank book.

The academic mark should be completely valid; that is, it should indicate scholastic achievement and nothing else. Personality characteristics, social traits, habits of work, attitude in class, effort, and everything else should be excluded from the academic mark and reported by some other means. Elementary teachers are able to use a two-page card with one page each devoted to a separate type of report. Secondary teachers can report a fractional mark with academic achievement being the numerator and attitude and effort being reported as the denominator, thus telling the parents what their son earned in any subject and also how well or poorly he is applying himself in that particular subject.

The achieving of any academic mark should be recognized as a co-operative effort between parent, student, and teacher. There should be no secrecy or mystery about how the mark is derived or computed, and all involved should be kept informed of the student's current status. All should want the mark, indicating the level

of work actually done, to be as high as possible. Teachers who are proud and boastful of the large numbers of failures in their courses have lost the vision of the function of the true teacher.

It is as important to notify a parent that although his son has achieved an *A*, he is capable of much more, as it is important to tell the parent when the school needs his help to save Johnny from a failure. Parent-teacher conferences in both cases are indicated as needed.

Finally, the students of today are the voters, officeholders, scientists, and parents of tomorrow. The success of America depends on how well the public-school teacher does his job. As educators, we need the friendly, sincere, support of every parent possible to make these students into worth-while citizens. Therefore, we must do all we can to earn parental confidence and support. Eliminating many of the frictions which arise around "report card time" can and should be done as a step toward better schools for America.



To a Reluctant Student

By JACOB C. SOLOVAY
Brooklyn, New York

My little friend,
You like to shirk;
You hate the thought
Of any work.

And you will fail,
Like any oaf,
And have another
Term to loaf.

Awaken from
Your mental coma,
Or take ten years
For your diploma.

The Case of the "Phonic Jet"

By OTTO F. HUETTNER and JOHN J. HOSMANEK

P. T. BARNON, SALESMAN OF PRACTICAL GADGETS, sallied into the principal's office of the Archibald Youckenheimer Junior and Senior High School lugging a case containing the new Exasperado Corporation's "Phonic Jet" reading-rate accelerator and comprehension improver. "It buzzes but it won't hurt you, it lights but it doesn't go tilt," he laughingly reassured the progressive-looking young administrator on the other side of the desk.

He promptly opened the case, revealing a shiny, dome-shaped helmet with expensive-looking knurled knobs, a few shiny coiled springs, and two dials—one circular and the other linear. "Do you have any retarded readers in your school?" he asked. Without waiting for an obvious answer, he placed an impressive-looking booklet—printed in three colors—on the administrator's desk.

Without much difficulty, the booklet fell open to pages 17 and 18 which contained a line graph on one side and on the other a chart headed "Median Gains in Rate of a

Selected Group of Ninth Graders." The salesman paused long enough to allow the administrator's eyes to notice that the line on the graph went only upward and the gains listed in the chart were indeed significant. As more pages were flipped, the convincing voice of the salesman accompanied each chart and diagram, revealing the almost surprising information that every experiment described in the book showed startlingly successful results—and now the Phonic Jet was being introduced, for the first time, in the schools of our nation! No more would the poorly informed Bestor and that Flesch fellow be able to criticize reading teaching methods!

The administrator was no dupe—yet here were the results, the graphs, the norms, means, medians, and coefficients—and he had a neat sum in the budget tagged "audio-visual aids." Well, it could be tried—only an old fogey is unwilling to experiment!

Moreover, both standard and classroom tests indicated weakness in the school's English results and the faculty was restive as a result of community criticism. The principal pictured himself telling the English department, "We can kill two birds with one stone. We can solve our language problem while we show the townspeople that we are alert and using the newest tools to solve our problems." A member of the staff would immediately volunteer to use the new equipment, he thought.

Luckily, the Phonic Jets arrived on the last day before the spring vacation, for Mr. Testmore, the only English teacher with legal tenure, who was chosen for the experiment, was in a week-long euphoria broken only by his anxiety to "get going." (Colleagues on all sides who had formerly relegated him to the group "fading away" were surprised on their return to find a ro-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Now that automation is here to stay, how can it answer many of the perplexing questions that school administrators and teachers have to deal with? There is some question in our minds that the authors are serious about their "reading-rate accelerator and comprehension improver." No doubt, they relish the opportunity to talk about the machine and express their reservations. Furthermore, it makes an interesting account. The writers are principal and assistant principal, respectively, of the South Side Junior High School, Sheboygan, Wisconsin, where reading accelerators are used with considerable success.

bust and energetic Mr. Testmore.) This was for him!

Testmore, for the first time since they were adopted twelve years ago, set aside the English textbooks and the lesson plans he had written at that time. The students, after recovering from surprise at seeing Testmore actually moving and breathing and departing from his dry directions and the textbooks he religiously followed each day, took quickly to their tasks—one pulling the shades to darken the room, several passing out the Phonic Jet helmets, and still others passing out the small flashlight batteries to be inserted in the helmet. Testmore explained the proper donning of the periscopic equipment, remembering to add, "If you have glasses, press and turn the orange dial to six before you start." In a moment, lights went out, helmets started buzzing, and rays of light stabbed about the darkened room, presenting to Testmore's moist eyes a scene not unlike the night search for a missing plane.

In the ensuing six weeks—the manual said that's all it took—Testmore industriously planned lesson after lesson and often commented on the progress being made to colleagues who suspiciously eyed the "new Testmore" and his darkened English room. There was no doubt but that the machine had created curiosity and interest, as all such equipment does, nor was there lack of student enthusiasm for the new routine, which was much more interesting and varied and gave each student some opportunity to examine his own progress.

With the administration of the final test, it became obvious that the helmets worked!

Results showed remarkable gains over the results of the tests given at the beginning of the year. Even the two boys who had been out of school during four weeks of the experiment made significant gains!

But with the publication of the results and final payment on the Phonic Jets, a fly in the ointment appeared. The students in the English room across the hall in Miss Teachwell's room—where the lights were ordinarily kept on and where the teacher did not need a medical chart to prove she was alive—who actually liked reading "the way she taught it," had made similar gains! All her life Miss Teachwell had enjoyed children and had concentrated on learning to understand them. Somehow it seemed that her students were her admirers for life and they always seemed to be able to use their language skills effectively. She didn't rely solely on a textbook or gadgets, but her classes were challenging.

When it was all patiently explained to the crestfallen Testmore, he slowly recognized what was wrong, but still operating on his rediscovered energy and intellectual interest, he turned for the summer months to a rewriting of his master's thesis, which was based on a hypothesis that most boys who had been retained at least twice and whose surnames begin with R to Z are discipline problems because teachers traditionally seat students alphabetically and do not give suitable attention to those in the rear of the room.

The moral of this tale is that "all that glitters" does not produce results—and look behind the beam or you'll get your significance ratios twisted.



If we are not to fall hopelessly behind the Russians, we must bring the salaries of our teachers up to the level of the earnings of physicians, lawyers, and engineers. Through this and other measures we must so dignify the profession that it will attract the ablest of our boys and girls. The alternative may be intellectual and cultural stagnation.—JAMES A. MCCAIN in *Vital Speeches of the Day*.

READING KNACKS

By HELEN RAND MILLER

WHEN DAVID SAID, "I need some reading knacks," his first day at the afterschool reading class for special help, he guided me to some conclusions:

1. We can give boys and girls more individual help in how to study—tell them what to *do* to concentrate.

2. We can help boys and girls get out of the frustration of feeling lost in the great big complicated mystery of reading.

3. If we can help them realize what it is they do well and how to use their best skills in new ways, then they will really be on their self-controlled, self-directed way.

David said he had no trouble reading stories. He was finishing *The Count of Monte Cristo* at a rate of better than a page a minute and thoroughly enjoying it. He was going through the classics in a way to please teachers and reading-conscious, college-ambitious parents. But his grades in school were low, though he spent much time and more worry on his homework. It was for schoolwork that he wanted the knacks, he said. He was bothered by the fact that when he tried to read aloud he stumbled all over the words, while he had no such trouble when he read stories by himself. Perhaps that was a symptom that

could help in analyzing his problem.

Within a month David was getting good grades in school. A teacher said to him, "I always knew you could do good work if you really tried."

David's trouble had been that he had not known how to try. In fact, he had been trying too hard in an unproductive way so that the harder he tried, the worse it was.

I told David that if he could not read so well aloud as to himself, that was nothing to worry about. It really was a good symptom. Reading aloud and reading silently are two separate skills, each of which must be learned. He could learn to read aloud if he set his mind to it. It is better to be able to read well silently because that is the kind of reading we usually do.

David suggested that we test with the stop watch to see how much faster he read to himself than he did orally. It was almost twice as fast.

Then we were both interested in his answers to these questions: Do you read to yourself the same way you read aloud, only faster? How do you read to yourself? What do you do when you read silently that you do not do when you read aloud? This is the way he analyzed as he talked:

"My eyes go first instead of my mouth. They can go faster. My brain explains it to me. It is faster than my eyes; it can bring from my memory everything I already know about the subject and tell me what more I want to know. Even if there aren't any pictures in the book, I see a picture of it in my mind—all at once. I don't say the words to myself. I don't stop to pick up words like 'to' because I know they are there.

"When I come to something I want to remember, my mind makes a note of it. I look at it a while and say it over and over but not in the same way every time and not

EDITOR'S NOTE

Regardless of whether you call it elocution or public speaking or reading aloud, there is a difference in required performance skills that sets it apart from silent reading. It is possible for a boy to be a good silent reader and do a poor job in reading aloud. Unlike love and marriage, in the popular song, they do not go together. The author makes this clear, we think. She is a teacher in the reading workshop at Presidio Hill School, San Francisco, California.

the way the book says it because my mind doesn't work the same way the book does. I keep the one key idea all the time so I won't get confused."

"Anyone would enjoy novels if he could read them like that!" I said. "You have discovered wonderful novel-reading knacks. Do you read your school lessons that way?"

He took a big gulp of thinking and then said, "No, I don't read that way at all. I read every word because I don't know what questions the teacher is going to ask."

My comments were these: Then I think all you need to do is to use for your lessons the best knacks you have discovered and developed. You have been studying on the defensive, fearful of the unknown. That is

never the way to succeed in anything. That is a way to beat yourself down to defeat. You need to recondition your methods of attacking your homework. Maybe you don't know what questions the teacher is going to ask. Then the first and important thing to do is to find out as well as you can what you are supposed to learn in each assignment. Then go after learning that. Don't ever think for a minute that you can learn everything. Nobody can do that. You have to train yourself to select what you are going to do and the methods you are going to use. You mustn't study like a cringing, beaten slave. You want to be the master of your own brain and you want to learn how to direct it.



Improvement Through Evaluation

First of all we see more clearly the total role of education in society. We no longer accept the naive Jeffersonian idea that one who knows what is right will do what is right. We know that knowledge is not necessarily power, at least not power for good. Thus, we are aware that equipping people with knowledge and skill is only one of the functions of education. Two educational goals are looming up as of greatest importance, viz., helping each individual to make the most of himself and enabling society to make greatest progress. Both of these goals are developed by the individual's total life in home, school and community. Both are matters of learned human behavior, of human relatedness. If evaluation is to be accomplished here it will have to be in large extent a matter of observed, recorded, evaluated individual and group behavior.

A second area where we have improved perspective is in that of the role of the teacher. We are beginning to see differences between instruction

and teaching. One can instruct another person in, let us say, the use of an adding machine. After such instruction the one instructed has what is for him a new skill. But do not expect that he has been changed as a person, that he is necessarily a better citizen, that his general behavior has been altered. Thus, we see that we can measure the effectiveness of instruction in terms of what those instructed know and can do. These measurements are relatively simple. We have been involved with such measurements for decades.

When, however, we turn from instruction to teaching we encounter different problems. True teaching must result not only in knowledge and skill, but in altered behavior. Thus, we must measure the results of teaching in terms, not so much of what pupils know, but of what pupils are and are becoming and in terms of how they behave and how their behavior is changing.—ERNEST O. MELBY in *Educational Leadership*.

Commitments to the Future

By WARREN C. SEYFERT

A DEDICATION IS A CEREMONY which pays compliments to the past and makes firm commitments to the future. As we meet this afternoon for these simple exercises, we ought, without neglecting our compliments to the past, to think profoundly of the commitments we can and ought to make to the days and years ahead. How will you and I make this, in truth, a dedication? To what high purposes do we now commit this building and the spirit for which this steel and stone and glass provide a mortal body?

Commitments are private and individual. If any one of you or if I fail to make a promise to the future, then for each of us who fails there has been no dedication.

I cannot tell you what commitments to the future you are obliged to make because promises should be freely made. But it is proper that I should tell you of my dedicatory vows. I speak them now. I am resolved that it shall be said of every boy that he has a compassionate heart, that he is devoted to civic virtue, and that he is both able and willing skillfully to apply his intellect to the solution of his own problems and those of the world in which he lives.

EDITOR'S NOTE

About a year or so ago, a new building was dedicated at the Milwaukee Country Day School. The dedication program featured an address by the headmaster of the school in which he proclaimed three basic educational principles to guide secondary education in the years ahead. The accompanying text is a revision of his address prepared for the occasion. The "commitments to the future" relate to goals for effective secondary education and are therefore, at least to us, important. We are grateful to the author for the honesty and integrity of his statement.

There is not time to explain why I have selected these three commitments. I feel deeply about every one of the three, and I trust you do also. If, however, it is possible to establish an order of importance among supreme values, I would unhesitatingly assign the greatest weight to the last of the three—the willingness and ability to use intelligence in solving man's problems. Even though it may seem obvious to you that a school should be devoted to the promotion of intelligent thought and action, I believe a restatement of the case for reason as the principal guide to human action and as a main concern of the schools is very much needed—not just here or today, but everywhere that man speaks to man. It is by no means certain that every school and its faculty and its parents give their unqualified support to intelligence, its development or its application. You have heard people, as I have, make disparaging remarks about intelligence and intelligent men and women. And I have even heard parents express the wish that their children were not so able or give thanks that they were not too bright. Such statements, by my code, are blasphemy.

There are many magnificent phenomena, both inanimate and vital, which leave us awe-struck. But there is one which, in my judgment, makes all others seem trivial. It is an act so common in human behavior that its greatness is seldom recognized except by scholars who try to distinguish the great from the lesser. I speak of the seemingly simple act of observing two or more objects or motions or ideas and by contemplation—by giving thought to them—creating something wholly new, that new being a generalization which encompasses these seemingly unrelated objects. If ever there is a time when man takes on godlike

qualities it is when he applies his intellect to his observations and, quite literally, thereby creates a new thing. Every thought is an act of creation, and every refusal to think is a refusal to share with the world this remarkable power. Do you sense, as I try to, the magnificence of this power? What makes this human ability all the more significant is that every man and woman, every child possesses it; and everyone uses it in some fashion to some end, good or ill.

In part, then, my reason for giving the cultivation of intellectual ability the pre-eminence that I do is that it is the one ability which puts creation in the hands of the very least of us. So great a power should not be wasted; it should not be manipulated by cheater's methods; and it ought not to be handled in any less adept manner than each of us can acquire.

Because this nearly divine ability to create resides in each of us, we cannot assume that each of us can or will make full and proper use of the ability. Most of us actually use this power poorly, sparingly. The full potential of the power to observe, generalize, and apply can be realized only if the motivation is sufficient and the training is appropriate. It is a power which like other sources of energy needs to be developed, directed, and made to flow. I can think of no more ennobling and inspiring end to which our school could dedicate itself than to such development and direction and motivation.

Perhaps you resist my argument that our school should respect intellectual ability because the ability to generalize gives man the power to create and, hence, is an almost divine quality. Consider the world in a strictly worldly sense. How would you have its affairs managed? By pure chance? Hardly, for our environment is far too complicated to put any more trust than need be in the omniscience of dice. By imitation and repetition? If it is death we wish, to choose these would be a certain way to

bring it. By mass, weight, force—of money or arms or words? All that we respect urges us also to reject these as guides. By fantasy, by passion? Whichever way we turn in search of options other than the application of intelligence we come only to ends which chill or revolt us. I conclude, then, that man's only hope of being able to deal with himself and his world in a human and humane way is through this application of his intellect in the finest manner his intellect is capable of.

It is possible that you wish this were not so, but I am convinced that no amount of wishing will alter the situation in the least. If we sincerely desire that our sons be masters of their world rather than be ruled by it, we must stand firmly for everything that will strengthen their powers to observe and generalize—to think.

Am I unnecessarily belaboring an already willing horse in urging on you and our school a reaffirmation of our commitment to the fullest possible development and use of human intellectual ability? I think I am not. I have made earlier reference to some disquieting signs of public disagreement. I urge it also because in many schools across the land one can note what I take to be well-meaning but misguided efforts to substitute more palatable goals for intellectual growth. But I urge it particularly because in every school that I know there exists and always will exist some degree of confusion between mental imitation and creative intelligence. Because the imitation is easier to come by than the genuine article and because it can often be passed off as the equivalent of the real thing, both students and their parents may be attracted by it. This is a dangerous and potentially fatal substitution. Only the genuine is acceptable.

I have been discussing a human characteristic which our school should do its utmost to promote. I have said nothing about methods or materials or subject matter that may be useful in the promotion. These are

by no means insignificant considerations, but they must be viewed as any tools should be: they are good only if they produce the results desired. Traditional school subjects and traditional school methods are by no means the only instruments that can be used to get us to the end we seek. If we look about us, or merely look at ourselves, we may be doubly doubtful of the effectiveness of what has been done or used for so long. It is not my intent, however, to encourage you to make such a negative evaluation. Rather, I ask you to stand behind your school, and any school, which in its efforts to increase the intellectual competence of its students reaches out in a new and inventive manner. Not only do I ask you to stand with us in this search, but I think it your responsibility, if we stop our searching for new and better ways, to remind us as forcibly as necessary that we are not keeping our vows.

I ought not to conclude these few sentences in praise of the rational approach to life without a few words of warning. Every set of observations and resulting generalizations—every act of thought—is a threat to things as they are. Hidden in everything new is a drop of poison for the old. Obviously, there is a threat of a kind embodied in every poorly drawn generalization; but even greater is the danger residing in many a skillfully drawn one. While intelligence can do much to ameliorate suffering and difficulty and inconvenience, if it is left unfettered, as it should be, it will sooner or later bring into question the judgments, the opinions, the conclusions on which we have so comfortably depended. If we say we are in favor of reason and mean it, we must be prepared to rebuild after an apparently stalwart foundation has been undermined. It is this outcome of the thoroughgoing application of man's reason to man's affairs which makes many of its admirers only halfhearted in their support. If it is your sincere desire to make competent thinkers of your boys, you cannot be

halfhearted in your support of either the goal or of your school in its efforts to reach that goal. Parenthetically, neither can you be halfhearted in the application of rational methods to your own lives. As I have said, thinking consists in making observations and then drawing conclusions. If your boys note that the school, with parental approval, is urging one pattern of life, but they see that those who argue most strongly refuse to follow their own advice, what conclusions do you think they are likely to draw regarding either the integrity of the adults surrounding them or of the validity of the method being advocated? As adults we often jokingly say, "Don't do as I do, do as I say." As a model for grownups to give to young people this is indeed a cruel bit of humor.

Our school should stand for three great values. One of these—true intellectual competence—I have discussed with you from an abiding personal conviction regarding its importance. As for the other two—the compassionate heart and civic virtue—I could speak as sincerely about them if time permitted, and I do not want you to think, since I have given them no more than passing mention, that I rate them of quite secondary significance. I do wish, however, to make one observation about them as they relate to intellectual ability. Depth of feeling for one's fellow men and upright conduct as a citizen have many components; they are extraordinarily complex in nature and not easily learned. I am convinced, none the less, that without the application of intelligence neither the compassionate heart nor civic virtue will be as rich and complete as it otherwise would have been. While intellectual ability may not be a sufficient condition, it is at least a necessary one for all the other values we prize.

In our striving toward high goals which are difficult to define in words, we are helped if we can identify men and women in whose personal conduct we can see our ideals in action. We all have said when

someone has tried to explain something difficult to us, "Give me an example." The three goals I have set for our school certainly are hard to put into words. Fortunately, you and I and our sons can find examples of people who practice what we preach, who can show us what our high ambitions mean when put into operation. I pay my respects to the men and women through whose efforts our school has been

brought to its present happy state—the members of the board over these many years, others in our school family who gave themselves to the school without honor or title, and the devoted teachers of our school.

"Ah but a man's reach should exceed his grasp / Or what's a heaven for?" Let our dedicatory resolves be that, so we shall never cease to reach.



A Criticism of the Yearbook

By STEVE A. MITROVICH
Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio

One basic purpose of the yearbook is to convey to the community the school's curriculum. Failure of any school annual to do so might suggest to the community that perhaps the school has no serious purpose or philosophy. The adviser of the annual and his staff know that the curriculum activities fill most of the school year, yet year after year the school annual devotes a very small percentage of its pages to telling the community the whole story of the academic life of the school. The crux of the problem lies with the school administration and yearbook adviser. Most annuals fail to give any appreciable space to the curriculum program. Usually one will find a picture of the school building and a few pictures of stiffly posed students in classrooms. These few undramatic pictures with their poor captions do not tell the real story of the academic life of our schools.

The yearbook is one of the most positive mediums of public relations that any school might possess. Many criticisms of the school curriculum arise simply because people in the community are misinformed on this subject. A better understanding could be had of the curriculum if more space and more emphasis were devoted to the academic life of our students. It is obvious that our schools suffer from this negative approach to the curriculum.

A yearbook to be truly successful should record both the facts and the spirit of the curricular year. This can be accomplished only when there is a desire by both the school administration and the

yearbook adviser and his staff to put in some hard work. They must acquire some understanding of the use of words and pictures which will dramatically portray the school curriculum. Before they can tell the story of the school curriculum effectively, the adviser and his staff must try to get an over-all picture of the whole curriculum. Collecting facts will facilitate planning the content. These facts must come from the people responsible for the organization and the carrying out of the academic program. Discriminately chosen words and pictures are necessary assets required to tell the story of the school curriculum successfully. These two items are important because they make a significant contribution to the total program of the school.

There is much preliminary work involved in effectively portraying the academic life of the school. Photographs play a most important part in realizing this objective, and when a photographer is chosen this objective should be kept in mind. The photographer should be an individual who is capable of making dramatic photos, photos which tell a story, rather than just woodenly posed students in the classroom.

It is well to remember that a successful yearbook can be a most positive medium for public relations for the school. Planned photography, coupled with well-written descriptions of the academic life of the school, will fulfill this purpose. Furthermore, the well-planned yearbook, in addition to serving this purpose, will also remain for years to come an enduring memento for its possessor.

Mentations Now and Then

By PHILIP S. BLUMBERG

ANOTHER YEAR is at hand, and I cannot do better than urge a reading or a re-reading of two impressive articles which appeared in the pages of *The Clearing House* not too long ago. I have in mind Ira Freedman's "Developing Critical-Mindedness" in October, 1956, and Carlos de Zafra's "Teaching for Critical Thinking" in April, 1957. Messrs. Freedman and de Zafra are everlastingly right. Mental activity, the stirring of thought, the exchange of ideas, mind meeting mind in the stimulus of frank discussion—all this, and more too, must be the be-all and the end-all of our endeavors.

Now this urgent plea that our growing boys and girls examine the meaning and the thought of their reading matter, that they criticize it and build upon it, is no new conception in education. From time immemorial—from the days of Plato and Aristotle and Montaigne to our American educator, John Dewey—thinking has been the commanding injunction of all the great teachers. (I almost failed to mention my

favorite of all teachers, Socrates, who is reported by Plato to have said, "I am that gadfly which God has attached to the state, and all day long and in all places am always fastening upon you, arousing and persuading and reproaching you.") Almost a hundred years ago, William J. Cory, the English schoolmaster and lyric poet, considered the most brilliant Eton tutor of his day, declared it to be his firm conviction that "at school you are not engaged so much in acquiring knowledge as you are in making mental effort under criticism." And our own astute former education editor of the New York *Herald Tribune* has omnisciently asserted, "The success of education can be measured by the degree to which it has created a taste for thought."

Therefore, I suggest that now and then the regular, prescribed daily round of activities be suspended and that class time be given over to what I like to call a period of mentation. Instead of delving into the uses of subordinate clauses (substantive, adjective, and adverb), pointing out the fine difference between one used to express purpose, and another to express manner; instead of clarifying the distinction between a gerund and a participle, drilling the boys and girls to use nouns directly and indirectly, and writing sentences, some containing transitive verbs and others, intransitive, and most ticklish of all, writing a sentence exemplifying an infinitive phrase used as a noun, I would submit to a junior or senior group of students the following paragraph taken from the writings of one of our great historians of the past generation, James Harvey Robinson:

"Curiously enough our habits of thought change much more slowly than our environment and are usually far in arrears. Our respect for a given institution or social con-

EDITOR'S NOTE

The title of this article made us run for the dictionary and, if you are an amateur lexicographer, you may have to do the same. On the other hand, maybe you know what "mentations" are. In reality, the context of this article is stimulating. It emphasizes the necessity for teachers to arouse mental activity in students. This is easy to say but difficult to accomplish because it relates to the power of the teacher to spur students to "increased intellectual and spiritual discomfort." The author, who has contributed previously to The Clearing House, is a lecturer in education at Seton Hall University, South Orange, New Jersey.

vention may be purely traditional and have little relation to its value, as judged by existing conditions. We are, therefore, in constant danger of viewing present problems with obsolete emotions and of attempting to settle them by obsolete reasoning. This is one of the chief reasons why we are never by any means perfectly adjusted to our environment."

The preceding paragraph is provocative, challenging. The statements and implications are grave and serious; the ideas are tremendous. The teacher must frame his questions in such a way as to arouse mental activity, to discover what the students think. Is Mr. Robinson's presentation an enlightened point of view? Why? How? What is his point of view? May he be wrong, and why can't one subscribe to it? Give a full hearing to the opinions of those who differ with you.

On another occasion we might dispense with (no diminution of mental discipline and intellectualism!) a recital of memory passages such as Mark Antony's funeral oration, Hamlet's soliloquy, William Cullen Bryant's last nine lines of his masterpiece, "Thanatopsis," the last stanza of his "To a Waterfowl," or a consideration of the climactic scene in *Silas Marner* or the greatest point of interest in *Julius Caesar*, to ponder these few sentences culled from the works of America's greatest essayist, Henry D. Thoreau:

"It is never too late to give up our prejudices. No way of thinking or doing, however ancient, can be trusted without proof. What everybody echoes or in silence passes by as true to-day may turn out to be falsehood tomorrow, mere smoke of opinion, which some have trusted for a cloud that would sprinkle fertilizing rain on their fields."

Here we have three sentences teeming with meaningful ideas. Mr. Charles Angoff (incidentally, the author of that no mean mental gymnastic exercise, "Was Shakespeare 'Shakespeare?'" in *The Clearing*

House for September, 1956) in his exciting and illuminating autobiographical essay of his high-school and college days, assures us that students crave an opportunity to discuss with the teacher the problems raised in their reading. In his memorable criticism, Mr. Angoff makes clear that the primary aim of education is not to inform, but to educate, in the strict Latin meaning of the word. Also, the purpose of a high school education is to stir up in the heart and mind of the student as many new interests as possible, to have him give his honest personal opinion, and to indulge in speculations of his own.

And finally, with no intention of minimizing the importance of drilling the pupils in the several uses of the comma, or practicing the correct pronunciation of *irreparable*, *gondola*, *inchoate*, and *explicable*, or of neglecting to consult the dictionary for the derivation of *idiosyncrasy* and *vicissitude*, may I offer to an attentive group the cogitation of the following passage?

"We have learned from our day-to-day existence that the growing mastery of nature does not inevitably improve the quality of man or his social relations and institutions. The automobile, freezer, and telephone have enhanced the family; medical and hygienic services have extended our lives. But the increase of physical comfort has at the same time increased intellectual and spiritual discomfort, or as it has been nicely put, nuclear fission has created moral confusion."

What a provocative, thoughtful consideration of the nuclear age we live in! It is my strong belief that the thought training received by the students in their classes may very well be regarded as one of the most valuable experiences of the entire four years' course.

I hope that this phase of our English work has made its appeal to some of the readers of *The Clearing House*. If anyone is so minded, I shall be pleased to forward upon request a few excerpts.

A TEACHER TALKS BACK

By ROBERT HOPPOCK

THERE ARE A LOT of local elections coming up soon in which parents are going to decide what kind of schools they want for their children. Now that Admiral Rickover and his cohorts have had their field day sneering at American education, perhaps it is time for a teacher to talk back.

The critics of our public schools now want every child required to study more mathematics and science and foreign languages. In a scientific age, with international relations becoming daily more alarming, there is a certain spurious plausibility in this proposal. But just what are our self-appointed experts suggesting?

I have had a taste of the kind of education they propose. In high school and college I had seven years of mathematics, seven years of science, and seven years of foreign languages. I won a mathematics prize in college, made grades of *A* in physics, chemistry, and French.

I learned geometry—plane, solid, and analytical. I can still recite the axioms and

the theorems. When two parallel lines are crossed by a transversal, the alternate interior angles are equal. In a right angle triangle the square of the hypotenuse equals the sum of the squares of the other two sides.

But I never became an engineer or an admiral and in thirty-five years I have never once had any use for these choice bits of information.

In biology I had the delightful aesthetic experience of dissecting an earthworm and a dead cat, with the professor leaning over my shoulder to make sure I got my hands into the stinking guts. I have never dissected anything since except a Thanksgiving turkey. I learned to do that from my father, not from my four semesters of biology.

Thanks to my high-school Latin teacher I can still recite "*Gallia est omnes divisa in partes tres*" though I am no longer sure I can spell it correctly. I memorized a stack of irregular French verbs and I learned to sing "*Stille Nacht*" in German. The only value I have ever found in these items is their snob appeal, when I want to display my erudition at the expense of some less fortunate soul who never got to college. My daughter Joan studied far more language than I. She is now traveling in Italy and she writes home, "I'm having no trouble at all with the language. I can ask questions perfectly. I just can't understand the answers."

Everyone is excited because the Russians got a gadget off the ground before we did. So now Russian education is presumed to be superior to ours and we are to copy everything they do. Do we want America to become more like Russia? If so, why don't we join them instead of fighting them? If we are going to have the admirals running

EDITOR'S NOTE

We remember a TV program on one Sunday afternoon. It was on the topic of how good a job our public schools are doing. Several of the participants paid their respects to life adjustment education in uncomplimentary fashion. Whereupon, Dr. Max Lerner said that education should refer to life situations and that more, rather than less, life adjustment was needed. Education that really prepares for adjusting to all the demanding requirements of life is a most challenging concept. The point of our remark is that we applaud the title and the content of this article by a leading professor of education. You no doubt know that the author is in the School of Education at New York University.

our schools, does it make so much difference whether they are American admirals or Russian admirals? Their concepts of education seem to be pretty much alike.

For years our industrial recruiting officers have been telling us college professors that, for management jobs, experience in the management of extracurricular activities is better training than French and Latin. So our armchair experts now want us to drop the activities that help to produce jobs, in favor of producing more unemployed linguists.

Our horse-and-buggy critics want to throw out courses in cooking and put in more biology. Is it more urgent for a girl

to know how to cut up a dead cat than how to cook a chicken?

Where are the real frills in education? Are they in the new curriculums and the new activities that have displaced the old four years of Latin and four years of Greek? Or are the trivia in the dead cats and the dead languages?

Admiral Rickover spews his contempt upon teachers by branding us "educationists." I accept the challenge. The ability to develop an atom bomb or an atomic submarine does not qualify a brass hat to run the American public schools. I wonder how the Admiral would like to have us teachers run his navy?



Why?

By ELIZABETH R. FRANCIS
New Rochelle, New York

Today our American schools and their problems are living in a veritable fishbowl. Everyone from the butcher, the baker, and the candlestickmaker is poking a finger at them. What is then more natural but that I, a teacher of some experience, should feel constrained to poke my finger also?

To be more accurate though, I am not poking at the schools but at the general public—the parents, the broadcasters, the writers, and entertainers so-called.

It is early September. The schools are about to open for the fall term. What comes over the radio and the TV? "School days, dear old golden rule days. . . ." Then follows commiseration for the children. Instead of reminding them how fortunate they are to enjoy good instruction, buildings with wide areas of playgrounds, and broad extracurricular programs provided, the announcer or the magazine writer pokes fun at the youngsters about leaving the "old

fishing hole," or the mountains, or the sea-shore, or what have you.

Magazines or town newspapers mutter snide remarks about old-maid teachers and Percy-looking male instructors. Parents criticize openly the necessary if somewhat long home assignments. At the dinner table Johnnie's teacher is blamed, not Johnnie, for poor marks. Mary's complaints about school are warmly backed or defended. Naturally no teacher is 100 per cent perfect, but she has her side, too, to be considered. Johnnie and Mary cannot always be 100 per cent right either.

It is June, or school closing time. What does one hear? "Good-by teacher. . . ." Not one word about how lucky you have been to be in a country where education is free to all. Instead on all sides: "Aren't you lucky that old school is over for two months and no old teachers to plague the life out of you?"

OUR SCHOOLS:

Which Way Now?

By
JACK R. FRYMIER

THOSE WHO SET THEIR FEET in a public school and try to teach catch the blast from every direction. The traditionalists say they are too progressive and the progressives say they are too traditional. The conservatives say they are too liberal and the liberals say they are too conservative. The parents blame the teachers and the school boards blame the parents. There is only one thing the critics do agree about: something is not right and it ought to be changed.

Argued from any position or examined on any basis, schools are not doing their job so well as they might. At least not so well as we hope for. Too many children hate the very thought of school and too many are not learning what they "ought to." Of course there is no agreement on what the "ought to" should include, so this just serves to confound the problem more and more.

If we consider the tremendous increases in both technology and human reproduction, we can hardly fail to conclude that

children need to know a lot, including how to get along with other people. Perhaps those who say this final point is not a real problem should examine the rate at which population has increased for the last thousand years or so. It is not leveling off. It is not even slowing down. We apparently are coming to a place in the not too distant future (maybe only three or four generations away, probably ten at the most) when men will literally and figuratively be living in one another's laps. That is, of course, providing we of this day and age can find some way to avoid a mass execution by what we call war. This most certainly would serve as an effective deterrent to the apparently never ending rate of birth increases, thought it seems a bit hardhearted.

What, then, do children need to learn, and how should this learning occur? Should we concern ourselves with methods or materials? Content or technique? Subject matter or concern for children? The classics or life adjustment? Traditional or progressive? The three R's or social problems? And on and on.

These questions, all variations of the same endless argument, are meaningless. Teaching involves *somebody* teaching *someone* *something* *somehow*. Obviously telling is not teaching. Or maybe it is not so obvious, after all. Many teachers go about their business as if the two things were the same.

It seems to me that what we need to do in our public schools is to teach more subject matter more effectively and more efficiently. Now obviously that is a truism if there ever was one, and certainly no one will object to my proposal who has come this far. Can we

EDITOR'S NOTE

There is a sentence in this article that rings a bell: "The transition from knowledge to intelligent behavior will not automatically occur." Unless students put much of their knowledge into action, education doesn't make as much difference as it might. We have here a reasoned explanation of why it is important to emphasize not only how to teach but what to teach. The author is assistant professor of secondary education at Temple University, Philadelphia.

go a little farther, then, and see what we will?

If what we need is more and more content and more and better ways of communicating this content to students, where shall we begin?

While one group argues for "knowledge," another begs for "method." The real problem, of course, is neither knowledge nor procedure. It is behavior—what people do. The American people simply will not accept knowledge, however arrived at, in lieu of certain behaviors. It is not enough to *know*, for instance, that five minus two equals three. If you give a clerk a five dollar bill for a two dollar item and get two dollars change, you do not care what she *knows*, just what she *does*! And society will not tolerate a person who *knows* he should not kill or steal, but does; they put him away if they can. Furthermore, the student who knows he ought to study for his final exam does not get credit for this knowledge, whatever it implies. It is his behavior that is scored—how well he does. Deeds, not words, are what our people want.

It is quite apparent, however, that intelligent behavior is based on knowledge, and we all hope that boys and girls can translate knowledge into intelligent, meaningful, desirable ways of behaving and acting. But the transition from knowledge to intelligent behavior will not automatically occur. Unless teachers create situations in which students put their knowledge into action—for that is all intelligent behavior is, knowledge in action—nothing else much matters, anyway. The traditionalists and the progressives, the essentialists and the pragmatists, all lose their point if nothing happens here. Unless boys and girls behave (not *learn* to behave but *do* behave) as if knowledge is so much a part of their very being that they cannot do otherwise, any effort will fall short of the mark.

Let me illustrate my point this way. Anyone who ever rode in an automobile knows that speeding is dangerous and results in

needless deaths every year, but people still speed. And while the relation of smoking to lung cancer is not quite settled, though it probably soon will be, smokers still smoke and then die of lung cancer. And the drunk who tries to drive knows he ought not to, even when he is drunk, and yet he still does. What is even more alarming, many of these persons are supposedly intelligent and rational people—some even teach!

Why do we do these things? Well, it is not that we do not know, because we do. The information is there. It is available to all. Indeed, in many instances it almost seems to be crammed down our intellectual throats. We cannot ride for ten minutes in our car, for instance, and not be reminded at least a half dozen times to "slow down and live," "take it easy and stay alive," "speed limit 50," "the life you save may be your own," or some such thing. All this "knowledge" we are apt to consume as we speed on our merry way. Thousands and millions of people who *know* one thing *do* another. But society will not condone—indeed, it will not tolerate—misbehavior, even by an "intelligent" person. Very obviously, then, knowledge by itself is not enough. We need something more.

The answer, or perhaps it is the problem, lies not in knowledge *or* method but in knowledge *and* method; not traditional *or* progressive but traditional *and* progressive; not the classics *or* life adjustment but the classics *and* life adjustment.

Boys and girls do not need simple mathematics, for example. They need whole concepts and workable understandings of logic, algebra, geometry of all kinds, trigonometry, calculus, statistics, and cybernetics. And probably statistics and cybernetics most of all.

They do not need single courses in world history and American history. They need a complete and comprehensive understanding of how man and mankind arrived and developed; of those perpetual problems which

seem forever to plague him and for which he has found no real solutions. And they need to know there are no solutions to these tough problems, thus far, anyway. They need a vivid, intimate, working knowledge of the last fifty years especially. If history has any meaning, then a living and behaving acquaintance with this period of time is more than essential; it is an absolute must. More history has been effected in this short time than *ever* before. More men have lived and done things since 1900 than during the sum total of man's years of existence up to that point. Schools hardly dare ignore the era, yet they most usually do. And colleges, too.

To strike a slightly different vein, grammar and punctuation are so insignificant a contribution they hardly rate consideration. Any three-year-old can communicate without this "knowledge," yet teen-agers must bear to tear sentences apart rather than put them together to get through school. Those who are concerned with languages and art must devise more and better ways of helping children communicate. Children need to learn to read and write, to listen and speak, but more than that, they need to learn how to "get ideas through to" and to "receive ideas from" other people; to understand, to facilitate, to comprehend. In short, they need to be able to communicate with great clarity and exact precision in two directions. Form and style are virtually unimportant, except as they may help accomplish more complete understanding and communication.

Children need to learn, too, what the factors and forces are which impede and disrupt communication of any kind. Hate, fear, distrust, insecurity, prejudice, intolerance—these are the real barriers to communication, not improper use of tense or misplaced commas. Children must learn how to tear away these attitudes and manifestations in themselves. But they also need to know how to help other people tear down their barriers; how to help them com-

prehend. All of this requires people who have love and patience, security and acceptance, kindness and generosity as a part of their being. These are ways of behaving which children must and can learn in the school, and in the home, too.

Children need more and more information to get along in today's complex world. Science, of course, they need beyond all reason. Children need to know all they can about themselves and their world and the people about them; where food comes from and the importance of light and the water shortage; what molecules are and how to split atoms and how to create new life; what people are like and what makes them that way and how to live with them all; where man came from and where he is going and how he will get there. These problems are so immense, one almost shudders just to think of them, yet today—not even tomorrow—our children *must* know these things. And even more, they must all do as well as they know.

The real problem, it seems to me, is not to argue about "what to teach" or "how to teach," but "who to teach"; *both what and how*. Unless we change our content upwards (more and more) and improve our methods downwards (less time and greater effectiveness), our whole cause may well be lost. We need to teach more and more subject matter in less and less time, and do it all well. And furthermore, every student must behave as if the subject matter were an integral part of the very fabric of his physical being. He must behave as if the Declaration of Independence has real meaning for him and for others; as if he knows that prejudice and intolerance are not only un-American but unintelligent; as if he knows that our society is competitive, but co-operative, too; as if he knows war and aggression are not the best ways to solve man's problems; as if he knows that time is man's greatest threat but his one true salvation; and on and on.

Our children will not wait on us. They

go right ahead, like Topsy, and grow. Of course, if we do not solve the problem it will be theirs in a few years, if we have that much time. As a people we need to gear our efforts in a monumental drive to improve our educational system at every level. The time has passed, long passed, when the three R's were enough. The list is so long now it would take pages. We need to start children to school sooner, keep them there longer, and find ways of matching their drives and ambitions with society's own. Schools which are open twelve months a year, sixteen hours a day, may be a start. Television, data processing, microfilm, higher pay, more buildings—these are bare beginnings. We need to have a teacher-pupil ratio which ranges from one to one up to one to a million. We need to create a body of teachers who not only specialize in different subject matter fields but who are also specialists in technique. Those who excel at lecture and demonstration should work at this level (maybe television or radio or writing is the thing for them); others who are good at leading discussions should work with smaller groups, primarily; the individual helper should work with one child at a time; and the tester and researcher and movie shower should all work their own best ways, too. But all should do their jobs well. There is no room or time for every teacher to be a multiproficient specialist in technique.

We also need to discover altogether new ways of rewarding these persons; to pay them for the job they do in a manner which will reflect their training, ability, experience, and their responsibility, accomplishment, and even importance to society at

large. Salary schedules must be based on more than two dimensions: they must be many dimensional. This means, of course, we must devise new ways to determine and portray human effectiveness. We also need to discover and develop manipulable devices for portraying human relationships and the dynamics they involve. And just because we have not been able to do some of these things so far certainly does not mean they cannot be done, although many persons still argue from such a blind premise. And some of these persons are supposed "to know." Even some of these teach!

If recordings played during sleep or flickers on the screen or an understanding of how hypnosis affects perceptual processes will help, we need all of these things. If insights occur in seconds, but only after a more lengthy lead-up period, we need to see if we can speed up the initial process and have more insights per minute, if it is at all possible. If running schools from six in the morning to ten at night will give us smaller classes and better learning, then let us try that. If television or new testing programs or standing kids on their heads will help them think, we need to do these things. Our problem is to devise ways and means of speeding up the entire learning process. There is too much to do in the years we now have *at the rate we are doing it*. We probably cannot change the hours in the day or the sleeptime required. We can, we must, by nature of the situation, work on both the things that are taught and the ways in which they are presented, and improve them both. We may need to depart from the assumption that twelve years are necessary for what we now do.



Intelligent internal criticism, prompted by philosophic and functional distinctions, should be regarded as a positive aid in improving professional effectiveness. This insight in itself, if its best implications were universally understood, would tend to curb emotional negativism among teachers.—TOM BRODIE in *Phi Delta Kappan*.

Events & Opinion

MEANINGFUL DIPLOMAS: Speaking before a convention of school board members, New York State Education Commissioner James E. Allen, Jr., stated that no pupil should be graduated and no educable boy or girl should leave school without their having achieved at least "a minimum degree of competence in, for example, the fields of reading, spelling, arithmetic and civic understanding." He suggested that each school board provide for a test or some other means of ensuring that all graduates meet the minimum requirements for a diploma. Although various achievement tests are given, such as New York's Regents examination for a college-preparatory diploma, no state, as far as is known, requires an across-the-board minimum-competence test.

At present, Dr. Allen holds, diplomas are often more than attendance certificates. He believes minimum standards would assure the public that the diploma holder could spell certain words and do basic arithmetic, and that he had a knowledge of his basic civic responsibilities. Furthermore, he declared that the schools can never achieve a really good program unless both able and mediocre students are held to "equally high quality in execution and performance."

According to an account of this address contained in the *New York Times*, the school board members liked the idea. Many of them saw it as a way to stiffen the high-school program and provide concrete evidence of performance that would make it easier to sell the public on increased support of the schools.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REFORM: The nation's colleges are not overcrowded and can handle a lot more students—but only if both colleges and students will act intelligently and change their present ways.

According to Henry W. Wriston, former President of Brown University, the trouble is not that there are too many students trying to attend college today but that there are too few of them, and that they are poorly distributed among colleges which, too often, are ill prepared to handle them.

Writing in *Life* magazine for October 6, 1958, Wriston calls for a major effort by parents, by students, and by colleges which will enable educational institutions to handle a steady increase in college applications and enrollments without lowering educational standards. This effort would include reform on various fronts:

1. Parents and students must realize that fine education can be obtained at many lesser known, nonprestige, non-Ivy League colleges. The practice of applying to a variety of colleges must end.

2. Colleges must abandon outmoded teaching methods, cut down on duplicative and unnecessary courses. Far too many colleges seek to lure prospective students by offering courses in too many subjects. This obscures the diversity of programs among colleges and the wide differences in the severity of requirements, as well as producing a great waste in money and instructors.

3. More and better teaching is an urgent necessity. Higher salaries, increased scholarship aid to graduate students, a shorter time period for obtaining degrees are highly desirable. "The need is not just for more people who have gone through routine training. The real demand is for dedicated men and women of high ability and creative power," according to Dr. Wriston.

If all these improvements are made, there will be a chance of luring many students of high talent who now do not even try to go to college. "Boredom is by far the most significant reason such students do not currently attend."

YEAR-ROUND SCHOOLS: Using the schools the year around was explored recently by *News and Cues*, a publication of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. There are two main reasons for current interest in extending the school year: It allows a broadened program and it permits a greater utilization of the plant, facilities, and trained personnel.

According to this article, our habits, as well as our buildings, have long since outgrown the original reason for the long summer vacation. It emerged in the last century because children's labor had an economic value at planting- and harvesttime. This hardly applies to many families today. On the other hand, with urbanization, there has been increasing pressure on schools to perform functions which used to be fulfilled by the home and community. Further, when the custom of long summer vacations began, most schools were one-room buildings. Today, when school plants represent multimillion-dollar investments, there is a tremendous waste in letting them stand idle for a quarter of a year. The waste of "laying off" today's trained teachers is comparable. This problem did not exist in a rural society whose teachers had almost no training.

In the early 1900's several city school systems tried out variations of the twelve-month year. By 1930 all but six had discontinued the plan as impractical, and it is in use in modified form only. Recently the pros and cons have been under re-examination for possible value in helping to relieve shortages of teachers and rooms.

A few schools have experimented with the four-quarter plan, which required pupils to attend school for three-quarters of each calendar year, with one-fourth of the students on vacation during each quarter. While this plan permits a saving of almost 33½ per cent on the capital investment in school buildings, it increases operating costs and each pupil is required to take his vacation during a quarter determined by the school.

The twelve-month plan would place the schools on a year-round basis, lengthening the two semesters to five and one-half months each with a month's vacation during the summer for all students. Also under consideration in this proposal is a plan to base the school year on four quarters, but make attendance in all four compulsory for all students. A one-week vacation would be allowed between the four quarters. Year-round attendance commends itself, particularly on two grounds, over the staggered plan: First, it would keep all pupils on an equal footing as to vacation periods. It would retain natural groupings of children in classrooms, in families, and in neighborhood playgrounds.

Second, it would enable students to get more education in a given span of years than is now possible or would be possible under the staggered plan. It would permit students who go on to college to complete their preparations for entering productive and remunerative work earlier. For many young people who would like to go on to postgraduate university work or professional schools, shortening college preparation by three years might be a large factor.

The disadvantages of the twelve-month plan are imposing. It is felt that too much pressure would be placed upon the students, which might discourage them. Many school authorities feel that acceleration could weaken the quality of education, although others believe that the extension of the school year would increase opportunity for counseling services and individual attention to meet the needs of the students. On one difficulty, however, most people would agree: Unless the twelve-month plan is widely adopted, the young people who go through school under the plan and are graduated from high school at fourteen to sixteen years of age will be out of their age group at college. For those going directly into business, the age differential would also be a handicap.

JOSEPH GREEN

A MAP STUDY OF INDIA

By GENEVIEVE R. MACDOUGALL

THE SUBCONTINENT OF INDIA is an ideal country on which to base an all-map seventh-grade social-studies activity project. Students at this level still love to work with crayons and paints, felt pens and construction paper, and gooey mixtures of salt, flour, and water. A map project gives them an opportunity to do these things, not as play but as a respectable seventh-grade academic assignment. Because India is relatively free of rivers, mountains, and political boundaries which might confuse students and "smear" legend symbols, it can be used as a background to tell any number of historical, cultural, and topographical facts.

India is more than a pleasant face to copy. Not only its geography but its odd customs, religions, and legends, its fanciful dress, its turbulent history of invasion, conquest, independence, and partition, its ancient civilization at Mohenjo-Daro, equal to our own (in number of bathrooms, at least), and its strategic position in Asian affairs can be pictorialized.

Tired of the traditional booklet projects about the Latin American countries, the Middle East, China, and Japan, two seventh-grade social studies (core) classes in the Skokie Junior High School, Winnetka, Illinois, decided to make an all-map project out of their study of India. And the project

turned out to be just that: big maps and little maps, cartoon and symbol maps, three-dimensional and flat maps; free and traced maps. (A number of the students used the movie projector equipment to make enlarged maps.) There were maps of every conceivable size and color, from tiny thumbnail sketches to a four-by-five-foot products map which caused no end of trouble when it came time to find a blank wall upon which to display it. Subject matter of the maps varied almost as much as the dimensions.

To give the project direction, each student was handed an assignment sheet listing a number of problems pertinent to the study of India, one of which had to be covered in the map report. These problems included: the influence of religion and the caste system, overpopulation, conflict of Moslem and Hindu, India's dependence upon food and machinery imports, the effect of colonialism, India's relations with other nations, the effect of India's geography upon its way of making a living, and the country's cultural contributions to the world.

To find the facts and figures with which to illustrate their maps, the students consulted the usual textbooks, almanacs, encyclopedias, library books, the up-to-date file on foreign countries in the classroom, current magazine articles, atlases, the Asian wall map, John Gunther's *Inside Asia*. There was no specific reading assignment. The students were on their own.

Although a great deal of the reference-work could be done in the library and the classroom, for obvious reasons a number of the projects had to be done at home. The salt maps, for instance, showing topographical formations of India, were perforce homework.

EDITOR'S NOTE

The author is teacher of English and social studies at the Skokie Junior High School, Winnetka, Illinois. She writes that this is a "how to" article that describes the study of India through map projects made by "my two seventh-grade core classes." She reports that the classes thought that it was a most interesting educational project.

These salt maps were popular. The mixture of salt, flour, and water was tinted with vegetable coloring and then molded to show mountains and valleys, deserts and rivers. Some of the maps looked good enough to eat, resembling artistically decorated birthday cakes. There were large (two-by-three-feet) salt maps and there were tiny two-inch maps with which one student studded an extra notebook project on India.

Another type of third-dimensional map was the product map, with representations of the products affixed to an otherwise flat map. India's population and distribution of peoples were illustrated on one map by two students who from somewhere obtained different colored sticks and used them as legend symbols. Of the numerous flat maps, perhaps the most remarkable was the four-by-five-foot products map, drawn freehand on brown wrapping paper. The names of India's principal products, which were geographically located, were printed in bold colors. When the map was displayed in the front corridor of the school, as were the numerous other maps and side projects, there was continual wonder where anyone could find the floor space to draw so large a map. The artist's answer—the basement floor. Symbols and explanatory legends, varying shades of color, and bold outlines (the felt pens at work) told the story of India on the flat maps.

What were some of the stories the maps told? They showed the topography of India, its mountains and valleys, rivers and deserts, its rainfalls, its highest and lowest points, its monsoons and other wind movements, its products, exports, and imports,

its mineral resources and other industrial areas, its religious groupings of Moslem and Hindu, its transportation systems of rivers and railroads and airlines, its commercial friends, its important places like the Taj Mahal, religious shrines like Benares, and big cities of Calcutta, Bombay, and New Delhi, its ancient history, including the invasion route through the Khyber Pass between Pakistan and Afghanistan, and the site of the ancient city of Mohenjodaro, its cultural contributions of opium, the zero, the decimal system, algebra, cotton, the toothbrush, and Arabic numbers.

A buzz session was one of the means of evaluating how much each student had learned about India through his own project. A student was asked to join the discussion group in which his project belonged. The problem groups of history, population and religion, and geography were arbitrary classifications. A resource leader, selected on the basis of his or her proved knowledge of India, led the discussion in each group, using the original assignment sheet as the basis for the "buzzing." Another student was appointed to check how much and how well each student participated. At the end of about twenty minutes, during which time the teacher "listened in" on the three discussion groups, the class reassembled itself. Each group leader reported back to the class as a whole the findings of his group. Further group discussion followed.

If the quality of this "buzzing" and the artistic scholarship of many of the maps were any indication, the project was a successful one. At least it was a variation of the routine study of India at the seventh grade.



Perhaps the most valuable result of all education is the ability to make yourself do the thing you have to do, when it ought to be done, whether you like it or not. . . —THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY in *Technical Education*.

Gobbledygook and Yokels

By R. C. HENRY

IT HAS BEEN SAID, with considerable justification, that the low estate of the art of poetry is the result of generations of erroneous teaching methods in our schools. I now submit that much of the confusion in our country is due to a colossal error in the presentation of the subject of English throughout grade school, high school, and higher institutions of learning. Adequate communication between the governors and the governed is accomplished today only after extreme study and irritation upon the part of the governed.

An English teacher working in the main with high-school seniors, I have set as my objective clarity of communication—the elimination of gobbledygook in writing.

EDITOR'S NOTE

This title doesn't really tell much about the article, but it is intriguing. If we wanted a longer title, we might use "The Elimination of Gobbledygook in Writing and the Futility of Impressing Yokels with Fancy Language." However, the manuscript is about clear and cloudy writing with examples of both positive and negative instances. We like it because we think that "Don't do this" is sometimes a good prelude to "Do this." We remember our teacher who demonstrated the necessity for clarity of sentence structure by saying, "Abraham Lincoln wrote his famous address while riding to Gettysburg on a brown scrap of paper."

The author is an instructor in the Helena (Montana) Senior High School. Under the pen name of Eric Thane, he is author of a number of nonfiction books published by Duell, Sloan and Pearce and by Bobbs-Merrill. Under his own name, he has written two textbooks which have been adopted for study in Montana high schools.

But I'm only one instructor. My students consider such exercises, at the request of supervisors and textbooks, as a high polish upon a simple direction: "Mark and clip the attached coupon." This is undoubtedly good, clear communication, and needs no revision.

But on the basis of what my students have had in years previous, plus textbook admonition, plus supervisory haranguing, they rewrite it like this: "Detach with shears the rectangular slip characterized by marks to be checked, said slip attached to the bottom of the sheet."

But, bucking the supervisors and the textbook, I stress clarity, and my students go on to college and three or four years later buttonhole me and give me hell because their instructors maintain they are unable to "write." I quote the word. Apparently the instructors are not too much concerned with clarity of thought and efficient dissemination of the message; they are concerned that it be "literature."

Which is all right, I suppose, but these same students go into government and, carefully trained (and our students are carefully trained, Sputnik worshipers to the contrary), put into practical use their knowledge, resulting in such items as a 2:2-word sentence in the federal income-tax booklet of 1957, beginning, "The charge with respect to any underpayment, etc. etc. etc." This is the sentence which Sen. Arthur V. Watkins of Utah tangled with and had to call upon taxpayers to help him understand. (He got no help from the befuddled taxpayers.)

Or they go into the armed forces and write directives, such as the item relative to the mowing of grass: "In general, vegetative areas shall be mowed at a maximum height consistent with their current use.

Mowing schedules shall be regulated by the amount of growth."

It is axiomatic that communication is the basis of efficiency. Thoughts and directions and orders must be put into logical and understandable sequence. But today we get gobbledygook, too much of it anyway, and we get it because instructors in our schools have taught us that the art and task of placing words on paper must be complex rather than simple, along the lines of the masters of old rather than a clipped but lucid atomic slant.

In my home state, juvenile laws are a mess because of ambiguous legalistic wording. Recently an important state official proposed that they be revised and placed in clear English by some "high school English teacher." It's a consummation devoutly to be wished, but I am afraid, depending upon the instructor selected, that the results would be even more confusing; I am afraid the laws would be rewritten in the words of the classics.

Not that there's anything wrong with the classics. We must have them. The classics and the classical type of writing—long, involved, designed to exercise the mind—are a necessity to adequate training for communication. But it stops there. They are a part of training, not the end of training. Communication is for the masses, and not one in twenty is trained to understand "fine phraseology." It's true our literacy is increasing, as school increases, as better instructors deal by more advanced methods with minds made more alert by the times and the inspiration of the instructors. But the word "halt" has never been improved upon; you cannot substitute "desist" or "There must be a cessation of this action."

Some time back our national administration stated that there was an "upturn" in the economic "down curve"—in fact, that the cost of living was "peaking out." This prompted Congressman Lee Metcalf of Montana, who works hard on his expression, to comment: "I don't know about the

upturn in the down curve of the rolling readjustment, but the bottom is falling out of the English language. . . . Until the present (economic) emergency ends, parents may want to take their children for walks during the newscasts—or we will have a generation that speaks in terms of things flattening upward or leveling downward."

As a general's aide during the latter part of World War II, I was charged with writing his speeches, press utterances, and directives. Again and again, I've had the rough drafts thrown back at me while the general, snuffling loudly—he had a constant attack of hay fever—would make the following observation: "Dress it up, Captain. Make it fancy. We got to impress these yokels that we got an education."

Is this the basis for governmental gobbledygook—"We got to impress these yokels that we got an education"? Whatever it is, the results are certainly confusing. If you don't believe me, ask any businessmen; they follow more regulations than most of us. They'll tell you that the wording of governmental directives drives them crazy and necessitates the employment of a corps of specialists which, of course, incidentally raises the cost to us of their products.

Throughout the generations, teachers of poetry have "taught" the golden words, reading and rereading, seeking the ultimate in a meaning which the author himself in all probability did not even conceive. Neglected has been the "feel" of the lines, which incidentally every student does not possess, just as every student does not have the physical wherewithal to run 100 yards in less than ten seconds. The result has been that it's pulling teeth to get adults today interested in poetry. That is, the better poetry.

We have the TV and radio jingles, true, but to secure an audience for anything deeper is a losing proposition. The "poet lariats" of our western states work hard at it, but without too much effect; the popular women's magazines carry an occasional

item, but the fact remains that there exist only a couple of full-time poets in our country of 170,000,000 persons, and one of them, Ogden Nash, is hardly along the lines of classical production.

The teachers have taught neither wisely nor well, just as they have taught written communication the same way. Get most current governmental directives—armed forces or civilian—and read them. The object seems to be to conceal rather than to reveal the necessary information. It would seem the writers are determined that the readers work mightily to find the point. The lines of printed communication are at times almost nonexistent. And they've been broken because the writers are the product of schools and English teachers dedicated to worship of the classical rather than the utilitarian. The utilitarian may with a touch of genius become classic, incidentally.

See Lincoln's Gettysburg address, for one.

In governmental writing the adjective is almighty, the long paragraph a must, indirection—possibly the word is "diplomacy"—is a necessity. It may be, of course, that the writers must impress their education upon the yokels. The matter to a considerable extent involves even governmental news releases, which of all things should be models of clarity. If you don't believe it, discuss the matter with some newspaperman charged with rewriting publicity handouts from Armed Forces and governmental agencies.

And back of it all lurks unwittingly the teacher in the fifth grade and junior high and high school and college, whose admiration—and training by teachers before her—for the classical type of writing has led her so to condition the impressionable minds of her students.



"The Search" Becomes Respectable

The position that the teacher actually has a moral obligation to search with students for satisfactory answers to questions of right and wrong is receiving increasing support from respected thinkers in the field. I have in mind men like Paul Tillich in theology and Theodore M. Greene in philosophy. Tillich holds that the highest concern of theology is not with "answers," but with what could be called the moral quest. It is relatively easy to find precepts that have already been laid down. One can do little more with them than to memorize and apply them. But the quest for the good life—the quest for God, if you will—this is a distinctively moral undertaking. And the very heart of this quest lies in *process*—in probing, discussing, evolving, pondering, criticizing, refining, and improving.

Only when all the facts are in, "when Earth's last picture is painted," shall we be able to say that a thing is finally and irrevocably true—and

maybe not even then. I sometimes illustrate the point in class by drawing a one-inch horizontal line at the far left end of the blackboard. This line represents the extent of man's knowledge to date, as contrasted with the almost infinitely vaster knowledge he has yet to gain, as represented by the extent to which the line could be drawn if continued to the far right end of the board. To say at this early stage of human history that nothing that is now believed could possibly be altered or supplanted by anything that is yet to be known becomes a little absurd, a bit irreverent, I should say. Instead of cocksureness and satisfaction in what we now know, it might be wiser to cultivate an attitude of humility toward what remains to be discovered. As John Dewey has stated it, "There is no belief so settled as not to be exposed to further inquiry."—FREDERICK C. NEFF in the *Phi Delta Kappan*.

The missing link in the **MERIT CONTROVERSY**

By WILLIAM C. JORDAN

EVERY SO OFTEN, like the tide, the nation becomes involved in a heated discussion over merit salary schedules for teachers. Unquestionably "merit pay for merit work" has an ear-catching ring. Further, there is something democratic, the rugged individualism which we prize so highly, about paying people what they are truly worth.

It is not difficult to determine who are the superior teachers in education. Ask any school principal to pick out his five top teachers and nine times out of ten he will count them off easily and quickly.

Another point, when teachers are evaluated to establish their right to move from a probationary to permanent status, few questions are raised about the administrator's ability to determine which teachers are satisfactory and which are not. At this time no one finds fault with the principal who feels that the probationers who do not measure up to professional standards should be dismissed for ineffective teaching. Why, then, should it be so difficult to determine, after tenure has been achieved,

that there is a difference in teaching ability? This question has never been answered satisfactorily, and up to now we hear only that the instruments for measuring teacher efficiency are too crude to be trustworthy. No one seems to be concerned about these instruments of measurement when discussing probationary teachers.

There are some school systems that contend that they have merit pay schedules. Closer inspection reveals nothing of the kind. Salaries of teachers are, in these systems, tied to further training, travel, professional contributions, and so on. There is no guarantee that these activities improve teaching in the classroom. Someone assumes they do, however.

There are those who contend that the business world thrives on a merit pay schedule, but when one begins to inquire into this, merit plans are hard to find. In the very few cases where there are salary differentials, no one seems to know quite why one person is paid more than another. Under pressure the answer finally evolves that the "boss likes this guy a lot." Obviously subjective judgment, a questionable standard, is in operation. The business world, except for promotion, does not employ the "merit system" as much as it would like to convince itself that it does. It is really a wishful myth.

The argument rages pro and con. Where merit rating is tried, it usually fails. Where it starts in a blaze of glory, within a year or two everyone quietly and conveniently forgets the whole troublesome affair. And yet, there is still something appealing and intriguing about "merit pay for merit teachers."

EDITOR'S NOTE

With all the professional attention to merit rating for salary and the thousands of pages that have been printed for and against the idea, we are doubtful about any "missing link" in the discussion of merit rating. After reading this article, we are in doubt no longer, for the author has a good point to make.

He is assistant to the superintendent of the Highland Park (Michigan) public schools.

There is no reason to fear that those who advocate merit pay are intent on keeping teachers' salaries down. Teacher organizations contend that this is a subterfuge to pay a few teachers excellent salaries while the rest are kept on starvation wages—all the while eagerly reaching for that carrot held out on a string in front of them. In the main, those school systems which do attempt some type of merit pay have excellent salary schedules.

Professional groups insist that the urge for better pay would inject politics into education. Teachers would, it is pointed out, use dubious methods to acquire merit rating status. While this argument does not indicate much faith in the ethical conduct of our colleagues, it does recognize the patent frailties of human nature.

When all the arguments are in, when everyone is finished (if that is possible), one basic principle remains—merit pay is a highly controversial issue. In the final analysis this is about all we can say. However there is one item which has not been advanced and which should be the foundation for any merit discussion.

What are we trying to buy with "merit pay"? When one studies this question thoroughly, one begins to wonder about the ideal teacher who is to receive ideal pay. Those who advocate merit pay are not talking about the superior teacher, they are talking about the *artist in the classroom*! They are talking about that one-in-a-million teacher who by an accident of nature has the personality, intelligence, drive,

dedication, and physical equipment which set him apart from all the rest of his fellows. In other words, the advocates of "merit plans" are trying to purchase a commodity that is not for sale; they are trying to purchase a product that is as close to being innate as any other personal characteristic. Teachers who are not *artists in the classroom* will never be; the necessary equipment is not there.

Teachers who are average operators can improve their classroom techniques. This is the job of supervision and the responsibility of both administrators and teachers. The school principal in his capacity as an educational leader will do much to lift the level of teaching in his school, but he cannot develop the *artist teacher* who is born with the necessary potential and needs only the opportunity to expand with experience.

Therefore "merit pay for merit teaching" has a loophole through which all arguments pro and con slide into obscurity. The artist teacher cannot be purchased. That same teacher would continue to teach at superior level if his salary were cut in half!

This, then, is the missing link in the merit question. You cannot purchase a commodity that is not for sale.

If school boards are interested in improved teaching—and this is their primary obligation as public representatives—let them look closely into the field of supervision; let them place this responsibility in the hands of their education experts; let them ask for evidence of improvement as the years go by.



We implore teachers to become acquainted with the American trade union movement and to make certain that the students have some knowledge of the glorious history of labor in America in addition to some knowledge of the gains labor has made for all America, as well as some idea of the challenge which faces the American labor movement at the present time.—LAMAR D. GULBRANSEN in *Utah Educational Review*.

A Classroom Suggestion Box

By RUSS CROSSMAN

DURING THE 1957-58 ACADEMIC YEAR, 150 of my eighth-grade students in rural Hawaii participated in a classroom suggestion program. The over-all objective of the program was to develop constructive ideas for the improvement of our class and school. The specific objectives were to develop skill in oral and written communication, to develop self-confidence, and to gain a better understanding of the meaning of free speech in a democracy.

To launch the program a brief explanation of its scope and purpose was outlined by one class and this was passed on to the other four classes. A suggestion box was then built by the students and placed in the room. Three rules were developed for the use of it: (1) All suggestions should concern ways to improve the class or school; (2) all suggestions should be serious; and (3) all suggestions should be anonymous. This last rule proved to be extremely troublesome.

It was decided that the suggestion box should be opened once a week during the last period of the day by a student committee appointed for that purpose. All sug-

gestions in the box were to be read, discussed, and considered for action by the class as a whole with the teacher serving in an advisory role.

In order to assure the other four participating classes a share in the proceedings, it was suggested that all ideas presented for the week should be placed in a large scrapbook for the other groups to read and discuss in their own periods. Later in the year this scrapbook was divided into four sections to coincide with the general type of suggestions that were being submitted. These sections were labeled (1) General, (2) Rebellious, (3) Romantic, and (4) Vulgar. Their titles were derived from the language used in the suggestions and whether the suggestions were constructive or nonconstructive.

General suggestions were considered to be those in which courteous but frank language was used to present a constructive idea. At the opposite pole, vulgar suggestions were thought of as ones in which obscene or profane language was used to present a nonconstructive idea. In between these two extremes were the rebellious and romantic suggestions. The former offered either a constructive or nonconstructive idea in insolent language and the latter offered a constructive idea in amatory language.

At the end of the year when we compiled our statistics we found that 78 per cent of the suggestions were general, 13 per cent rebellious, 6 per cent amatory, and 3 per cent vulgar. Further analysis of the general suggestions revealed that 14 per cent of them dealt with physical aspects of the classroom situation, i.e., the arrangement of the desks, the amount of ventilation, and so on, and the remaining 86 per cent concerned social factors, such as the amount of

EDITOR'S NOTE

This is the first contribution CH has received from Hawaii in a long time, and for that reason, we are happy to publish it. Of course, there is another reason for including it in this issue. It describes a particular practice rather well and uses both honest and interesting phraseology. In other words, the author discloses a sense of humor. He writes that if we are interested he will send us the 430 suggestions upon which the article is based. He is a teacher in the Leilehua Intermediate School, Wahiawa, Oahu, T.H.

homework, the type of classroom activities, and the attitude of the teacher toward the students.

The extremely blunt language used by some students came as a surprise, but the obscene and profane language was shocking. It was truly alarming to discover that students so young possessed such remarkable talent for vituperation and vilification. It was assumed at the beginning of the program that many of the suggestions would probably contain manifestations of adolescent "sturm und drang" but its vigorous and virulent form had not been anticipated nor had its opposite member, the romantic suggestion, been foreseen. The romantic suggestions occasionally had a spurious quality. Several of them were in verse form and others included popular teen-age ballad titles in their context.

As the program developed from October to June it bogged down occasionally and a sharp decrease in student interest was in evidence. It became necessary to restate its aims, alternate key personnel, and give increased attention to meritorious suggestions. This type of action helped recharge the program.

We also found that numerous students did not follow the rules established for the program. At the end of the year a total of 430 suggestions had been offered but only 289, or 67 per cent, of these were bona fide suggestions in conformance with the rules outlined for the project. Statements to the effect that "Karen likes Douglas" or "You stink" were quite common but had to be excluded for the above reason.

This failure to observe the rules was also manifested in the introduction of foreign objects into the suggestion box through a small slit in the top of the box provided for the suggestions. Items such as old gum wrappers frequently appeared in the box.

At the end of the project an evaluation of its accomplishments and shortcomings was made, with these results:

(1) The oral and written skills of the students seemed to develop. The suggestions became more legible as time progressed, more clearly expressed, and more indicative of some thought's having been put into the writing of them. In the discussion periods for the suggestions some students progressed from being dwellers in stupefied silence to being extremely voluble and forceful speakers.

(2) Some students seemed to be more self-confident. This was evident not only in their writing and speaking but also in their general attitude toward their teacher and their fellow classmates.

(3) A democratic tone was increasingly evident in many of the class discussions. The students became more considerate of one another's ideas and were more ready to listen to what others had to say. An unusual rapport developed between the boys and girls which, in our particular situation in Hawaii, is a rather rare occurrence at the eighth-grade level. In addition many of the students came to my desk without any apparent hesitation and offered various comments on the suggestion program and other topics.

(4) A few excellent ideas for the improvement of the class emerged. The most significant of these concerned ways in which our classwork could be made more interesting and meaningful.

(5) The program was not a panacea for the general run of classroom problems, but it did serve to place some of them in sharper focus. For example, the slow learners did not vanish automatically nor did the chronic discipline problems miraculously disappear simply because we had a suggestion program operating, but we did learn more about both types of problem situations through some of the suggestions.

On the negative side there is only one fact of major significance worth noting, i.e., allowing students to contribute suggestions anonymously may have fostered an erroneous concept of the meaning of "free

speech" or perhaps in some cases amplified an already twisted interpretation of this idea. It is felt that 22 per cent of the suggestions which were either rebellious, vulgar, or amatory indicate a failure to stress the idea that exercising "free speech" does not necessarily exclude restraint.

Granted, if the cloak of anonymity had not been allowed, those suggestions which were usually worth while (the general suggestions) may not have been so valuable as they were. However, because some students were off on a tangent the larger group was partially penalized. As soon as the offbeat suggestions began to emerge, it became necessary to have all suggestions "pre-viewed" by a student committee before they were submitted to the class as a whole for consideration. This censoring maneuver was deemed necessary in order to help ensure that no student was offended by a suggestion flavored with a generous assortment of ribald Anglo-Saxon diminutives.

I like to believe that by continuing to allow the use and abuse of "freedom of speech" in the suggestions I was providing access to a convenient public channel for expressing feelings of tension, anxiety, and rebellion which, if not expressed verbally, might have exploded into overt acts of physical violence. But as has been suggested, doubts still exist as to whether this aspect of the program might have been handled in a more intelligent manner.

Considering the program in its entirety, a list of six suggestions emerges for future use if and when a similar project is undertaken:

(1) In outlining the rules for the program with the students, offer them the opportunity of submitting suggestions signed or unsigned. If they vote for anonymity, be prepared for a small but significant percentage of rebellious, amatory, and vulgar suggestions. If they vote for signed suggestions, prepare for a less than candid picture of how students really feel concerning all phases of classwork.

(2) Provide a format for the suggestions, i.e., "I think our class could be improved if". This will not seriously restrict them in presenting their ideas and will probably help ensure a higher percentage of valid suggestions.

(3) Limit the program to ways to improve the class. At this particular grade level their academic world seems to be defined by the four walls of the classroom. No more than 1 per cent of the suggestions for 1957-58 pertained to the school as a whole or dealt with any phase of school life outside the classroom other than homework.

(4) Have a different class open the box each week and a different class rely on the scrapbook for their knowledge of the week's suggestions. This may help to bring the program to life for more students.

(5) Switch key personnel in the program on a quarterly basis. This will broaden the base of leadership and further solidify the gains of the program at the end of the year.

(6) Place the suggestion box as far as possible from the waste basket. This will help the students to distinguish more easily between the two.



A home without books does as much injury to a child as a broken home, a home that's alcoholic, a home that's criminal, because in all these places you distort and injure and impoverish this wonderful seminal capacity of the child's mind to build all kinds of structures of ideas and imagination.—MAX LERNER in *Washington Education*.

College Achievement of Public- versus Private-High-School Graduates

By

IRVIN T. LATHROP and THOMAS J. KIEFFER

DURING THE PAST YEAR public attention has been focused on many educational problems which have been apparent to school administrators and teachers for many years. Two events during the year have tended to make the general population of Iowa more aware of their public schools. One was the launching of satellites by the Russians and Americans. The second was the increased number of actual and proposed school district reorganizations.

One of the direct results of the satellites and the school district reorganization is a public awareness of the type of course and

content being offered in the secondary schools of Iowa. The public is not only concerned with what is being taught in the public schools, but many people concerned with private secondary schools are also giving the problem much thought.

In the country as a whole, young people, as well as their parents, are coming to realize that a college education is becoming more and more of a necessity for obtaining and holding a good job. Since the end of World War II the mores of the country have been rapidly changing until now a college education has become the socially acceptable thing to acquire. The large numbers of students who are currently enrolling in colleges in the United States are posing problems not only for secondary schools but for the colleges as well. One problem confronting both private and public secondary schools is what type of preparation best prepares their graduates for college.

Most secondary schools in Iowa offer several curriculum choices to the student. There are courses which are primarily vocational in nature, designed for students not contemplating college. There are courses designated as college preparatory courses, designed for students who contemplate continuing their formal education in a college. However, in many instances the secondary schools are of such size that to offer more than one type of curriculum is beyond the capabilities of the finances available. Many times these small schools offer a compromise course of study which is neither college preparatory nor vocational in nature, but a composite of the two.

In a previous study conducted at Iowa State College it was found that certain pat-

EDITOR'S NOTE

Some time ago, an official of the Educational Testing Service reported that graduates of public high schools achieved higher scores in most College Entrance Examination Board achievement tests than did private school graduates. His comment stirred a good deal of controversy, and some people were distressed by the statement. In fact, former President Dodds of Princeton disputed the report that in many CEEB achievement tests the private-school graduate did less well. Like Miniver Cheevy, he had his reasons.

Now we have a study comparing graduates of Iowa public and private high schools in their academic achievement at Iowa State College. It is difficult to generalize on the findings of this study, but it looks as if the graduates of public schools in Iowa do not come off second best. Dr. Lathrop is on the staff at Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo; Mr. Kieffer is director of guidance, Ogden High School, Ogden, Iowa.

terns of high-school courses assured a higher chance of success than others. There is a difference in achievement at Iowa State College for graduates with different high-school course patterns. This raises the question of whether there is a difference in achievement at Iowa State College for graduates of different types of high schools. The purpose of this study was to determine if the public and private high schools in the state of Iowa do equally well in preparing students for work at Iowa State College.

For this study, fifty private-high-school graduates who enrolled in Iowa State College in 1952 were paired with fifty public-high-school graduates who enrolled in Iowa State College in 1952. These students were paired exactly on the characteristics of sex, division at Iowa State College, and high-school course pattern.

The high-school course patterns were defined as follows:

1. Math-science: included twelve semesters of mathematics and must include two semesters of algebra, two semesters of geometry, one semester of advanced algebra, one semester of trigonometry and two semesters each of chemistry and physics. It was assumed that all students would also have two semesters of general science.

2. General: included eight semesters of English, eight semesters of social studies and history, two semesters of algebra, two semesters of plane geometry, and enough other electives to complete a four-year course.

3. Home economics, agriculture, industrial education and business: included six semesters in one of the foregoing areas in high school.

4. Miscellaneous: included all students whose course pattern would not fit in the other classifications.

In some instances in both the smaller private and smaller public high schools, a miscellaneous course pattern is all that is available. In the larger schools it is possible that the students with the miscellaneous course pattern obtained their high-school education "cafeteria style."

The fifty private- and fifty public-school pupils were paired as closely as possible on the characteristics of aptitude as measured by the total score on the American Council on Education psychological examination, high-school grade point average, and high-school size. The sizes of high school from which the students were graduated were paired by using the code values from a study on high-school size done by Lathrop.¹ The means for ACE score, high-school average, and high-school size are shown in Table 1.

As can be seen by an inspection of Table 1, the mean ACE score is within .14 for the two groups. The means for the high-school grade-point average are paired to within .003 of a grade point, which for all practical purposes is no difference. The mean code values for high-school size differed by .66 of a code value, or an enrollment of thirty-three students. This difference in total enrollment does not seem excessive when one considers that Lathrop² found no difference in achievement at Iowa State College associated with high-school size if

¹ Irvin T. Lathrop, *Scholastic Achievement at Iowa State College Associated with High School Size and Course Pattern* (Ph.D. thesis in the Iowa State College Library), 1958.

² *Ibid.*

TABLE 1
MEAN ACE SCORES, HIGH-SCHOOL AVERAGE, AND HIGH-SCHOOL SIZE

Variable	Public	Private
ACE	106.86	107.00
High-school average	2.629	2.623
High-school size	4.10	3.44

TABLE 2
ACHIEVEMENT AT IOWA STATE COLLEGE FOR GRADUATES OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE
HIGH SCHOOLS IN IOWA

TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED	ACHIEVEMENT		
	FIRST QUARTER	THIRD QUARTER	CUMULATIVE G.P.A.
Public	1.853	1.843	1.908
Private	1.524	1.567	1.561

the high-school course pattern were held constant. Since high-school course patterns were matched perfectly, it has been assumed that the differences which exist in high-school size would have no influence on achievement of either the public- or private-school group.

The achievement at Iowa State College for graduates of public and private high schools is shown in Table 2. For purposes of this study, achievement was measured by grade-point average at three separate times in the student's academic career. Inspection of Table 2 shows an advantage for the public-school graduates for each of the three periods of evaluation.

The difference in achievement between the graduates of the two types of high schools was not statistically significant at the end of the first or third quarter. However, the difference in achievement between the graduates of the two types of high schools was significant at the time of leaving Iowa State College. It appears that the student who is graduated from a public high school in Iowa enjoys a greater measure of academic success at Iowa State College than does the graduate of a private high school.

The final disposition of the students enrolling at Iowa State College from the two types of high schools is shown in Table 3.

As can be seen by inspection of Table 3, a larger percentage of public-school students was graduated from Iowa State College than students who attended private high schools. However, a higher percentage of private-school students transferred to other universities. A test of significance conducted on the original values of Table 3 revealed a significant difference in the number of students from each type of high school who were graduated, transferred, and dropped from school.

It may be interesting to note the comparisons of curricular patterns of the public and private high school students enrolling at Iowa State College. The percentages of students with each of the types of high-school course patterns are shown in Table 4 (page 302).

Lathrop³ found that students with a math-science background had both the highest over-all achievement as well as the highest percentage of graduation. However, only 8 per cent of the private-school students entered Iowa State College with this type of preparation compared with 24 per cent of the public-school students. As would be expected, there were considerably more students enrolling at Iowa State College with a technical-vocational background

³ *Ibid.*

TABLE 3
FINAL DISPOSITION OF STUDENTS ENROLLING AT IOWA STATE COLLEGE

TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED	GRADUATE %	TRANSFER %	DROP %	TOTAL %
Public	36	12	52	100
Private	16	22	62	100

TABLE 4
TYPE OF HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE PATTERN FOR STUDENTS ENROLLING AT IOWA STATE COLLEGE

TYPE OF HIGH SCHOOL ATTENDED	MATH-SCIENCE	VOCATIONAL	GENERAL	MISCELLANEOUS
Public	24%	32%	28%	16%
Private	8%	6%	80%	6%

from the public high schools. By inspection of Table 4, it is apparent that the most prevalent type of course pattern completed by those enrolling at Iowa State College from private high schools is general in nature.

There are two possible explanations for the large number of private-school students enrolling with a general background. One explanation is that more of the private schools offer the general courses exclusively than do the public schools. The other is that more of the students from the private schools take the general courses in preference to other courses than do public school graduates. Evidence is not available in the

present study to substantiate or refute either of these suppositions.

A significant advantage for the graduates of the public schools was found when achievement was measured at the end of a student's college career. Evidence is not available to explain why the public-school graduates achieve higher grades. However, several reasons may be postulated for the superior achievement of the public secondary-school graduates. It is possible that the quality of instruction is better in the public school. There may be more emphasis placed on general rather than technical education in the private secondary schools.



The Above-Average Pupils

Assuming that the above-average pupils have engaged in the usual work tasks in school, what can we do further to stimulate the use of their special abilities? . . . First, these children may be given many opportunities to do jobs which demand rather painstaking accuracy. Work of this sort would include clerical service in the school office, library, and supply store, making up bibliographies, cataloging in the library, and keeping simple accounts in the classroom. Second, they may be placed in situations which call for constructive leadership. The writer knows an elementary school principal who put the loading and unloading of buses into the charge of three selected sixth-graders, with results just as good, by his own admission, as any he would have achieved. In another school, a group of very bright pupils from grades five and six were put to work on a project to improve physical

movement in the cafeteria. Other activities which may draw upon this ability to organize and direct are carrying out campaigns and drives of various kinds, setting up and managing school service agencies, and arranging special affairs and occasions in the school and community. Third, these pupils may gain valuable experience in helping to teach the younger and the less able children. Generations of Americans educated in multi-grade schoolrooms profited by this arrangement. The writer recently visited a one-room, eight-grade, rural school in which some very good results were being obtained through a sensible system of "teacher-helpers." . . . If we successfully challenge our above-average pupils to become intellectually and socially full, ready, and exact, we may help the next generation to experience an above-average world.—ROBERT V. DUFFEY in *Social Education*.



Letters to the Editor



Teaching Is Guidance

DEAR SIR:

Reading the article "Guidance—Function or Panacea?" by Collins W. Burnett in the October, 1958, *Clearing House* stirred me once again to take up the old pen and comment. Not that the article is unworthy of the magazine; far from that! It is well written and a clear and forceful exposition. But the author makes the same error that all educationists do, that guidance is something apart from teaching and that guidance is something new. . . .

From the earliest use of organized education among the Greeks, education was guidance. The *paidagogos* was a "guide for the child," both actually and philosophically. The Greek trivium and quadrivium, which formed the curriculum, was both a vocational and guidance plan—vocational, since it prepared youth for the law, politics, philosophy, the army, science, engineering, medicine, and so on. In addition, it built a "life." . . .

Take guidance away from the teacher, and you may as well take away the teacher, substituting television or the radio. Because education *is* guidance the radio and the television screen cannot replace the teacher, they cannot guide. And the teacher who does not or cannot guide has no business being a teacher. All those features that are today stressed as guidance, if education is to be more than a mechanical procedure, must be not something primary or something apart, but something ancillary, something available for the teacher who has noted an individual needing more than the teacher can give. The teacher does not surrender the individual, nor, like Pontius Pilot, wash his hands of him. Nor does he surrender all responsibility to the "guidance" personnel or service. If he does, he is

not an educator but a disher out of routines that could just as simply and as expeditiously be dished out by machines. . . .

In the process of empire building, guidance, like other activities in education, has become an empire with its jargon and its ritual. But no guidance system other than the teacher can build in the student a faith to live by, a self to live with, and a purpose to live for.

CHARLES A. TONSOR
Kew Gardens, New York

Supporting American Education

DEAR SIR:

In my opinion, the statements made in "Our Education Today—an Appraisal" (*Clearing House* for September, 1958, page 28) are not entirely valid. We do have, and will continue to have, an excellent overall modern educational program despite criticism to the contrary by both professional educators and nonprofessionals.

Although there is always room for improvement, change, and experiment, and although conditions in certain geographical areas need amelioration, our basic educational structure is sound. The challenge confronting America today is not the need to match or better the education given in any other country or place, but to strengthen some aspects of our existing system. Every student must be instructed in such a way that he will be prepared to take his place in today's world. He must be taught to have a better understanding of human relations and a wider grasp of national and international problems. The character of each child must be developed to its fullest extent for his own sake and that of society. The task is rough and the going hard. Yet our schools, in spite of continued criticism since their inception, have

always met their responsibilities and provided adequate education for the American youth. . . .

It is true that we need to increase the amount of money spent on education, but this has always been true. We must never forget that the educational system which we now enjoy has made America the economic and technological power that it is today.

EDWARD OTWELL

Elkins Park Junior High School
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Science Is not Enough

DEAR SIR:

In the September issue of *The Clearing House* appeared an article by Miss Virginia W. Fisher advocating a new emphasis on science in the secondary school and setting forth a suggested six-year science and mathematics curriculum. Today no one can disagree seriously with Miss Fisher's major premise: that we do need a more complete, more rigorous science curriculum in our high schools. However, her implied minor premise—that the science curriculum should be expanded at the expense of the language arts, social studies, and athletic programs—stands on a less firm footing.

Miss Fisher says that we no longer "need a high-school curriculum centered around the traditional language arts program," and proposes that we replace this by a science-and-mathematics-centered curriculum. This would be a major step; I suggest that it would be a completely unnecessary, even a highly undesirable, step. No student is going to learn anything if he cannot read and listen—if he cannot interpret language, with some degree of facility. It is the "traditional language arts program" which teaches these skills. I am certain that very few, if any, of Miss Fisher's potential scientists would ever learn any physics, any chemistry, any biology, any mathematics unless they first learned to read with speed and accuracy. Scientists may be able to communicate with

one another in the languages of their specific disciplines, but no knowledge can be passed on to the laymen or to the students in other than their own native languages. Miss Fisher could never have prepared her plea for a science-centered curriculum without a command of the essentials of a "traditional language arts program. . . ."

Miss Fisher complains that some educators "still continue to place greater emphasis on social studies and athletics than on science." I agree with Miss Fisher in exploring the all too common overemphasis on athletics. However, will the real needs of our society be served by decreasing emphasis on social studies along with that on sports? I think not. . . . Even though it is indisputable that a basic knowledge of science is and will be increasingly important to adequate citizenship, it is equally true that our students will need more than scientific knowledge to function effectively as citizens in a democracy. We do need to expand our program of science teaching, but it does not follow that we must decrease our program of social studies teaching. . . .

I cannot agree that "the future of America rests in the hands of the secondary science teachers." I believe that the future of America rests no less in the hands of the social studies teachers, English teachers, language teachers, and teachers in general. By no means let us deny any student the chance to learn the "basic facts of science" and the "fundamental concepts of mathematics." But let us also deny no student the chance to learn to use his language clearly and effectively; let us deny no student the chance to learn his rights and responsibilities as a citizen. This is the action we must take if America is to survive the present world crisis. Unless we develop competence in social skills and competence in communicative skills, all the scientific knowledge in the world cannot save us.

ROBERT W. DeLANCEY
Liverpool High School
Liverpool, New York

Book Reviews

FORREST A. IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

The Fundamentals of Public School Administration (4th ed., rev.) by WARD G. REEDER. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1958. 625 pages, \$6.00.

This book is a monumental work written from the perspective of many years of keen observation and critical study. The author has lived through many of the formative and history-making years of the profession of school administration. In this volume he deals with practically all phases of school administration. Obviously it is impossible to treat each part fully since whole books have been written on many of the topics which are chapters in this book. However, the reader cannot read through this volume without having a greater appreciation for school administration and a better grasp of the problems involved. A fine concept of democracy and the human approach to school administration permeates the whole volume.

It seems to me that the author has done a superlative job of handling certain chapters. His chapter on "School Administration as a Profession" contains a graphic description of the profession and the kind of men required to upgrade the profession. If more boards of education could acquire these concepts and follow his suggestions in the selection and employment of administrators, great progress would be made in the schools. Other chapters which I believe are particularly well handled are those dealing with "School Business Affairs," "Administration of the School Plant," and "School Accounting."

The book deals primarily with large school systems, although, as is pointed out by the author, the principles are equally applicable to schools of any size. Many of the quotations are extremely dated, but an up-to-date list of references is included at the end of every chapter.

Readers may differ with the author on many points but they cannot fail to be challenged to re-examine and clarify their own thinking about public school administration.

BYRON W. HANSFORD

Rehabilitation: a Community Challenge by W. SCOTT ALLAN. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1958. 247 pages, \$5.75.

In his preface Mr. Allan points out that this book takes "... a broad approach to the several

aspects of rehabilitation, stressing key facts and general principles rather than particular plans or methods. . . . It is aimed at the general reader, the student and the professional worker in the field who are interested in a review of the development of rehabilitation concept and methodology; current services, facilities and personnel involved, and the interpretation of the community pattern and emphasis which seems the surest guarantee of rehabilitation now and in the future."

Although there is adequate treatment of such topics as social laws, health insurance plans, budgeting, staffing problems, and cost experiences, the book has special merit because of its consistent emphasis on services to clients. And clients with disabilities, the author demonstrates again and again, cannot effect their own rehabilitation—rehabilitation is a community responsibility as well as a community challenge.

Teachers and, of course, school counselors and personnel workers will find of special interest the chapter on counseling. Perhaps in this chapter and in others related to it the author may have laid greater stress on the ways teachers and school guidance people can serve young handicapped individuals by talking with them about available community resources. Certainly teachers and others who know the expanding programs of the state Offices of Vocational Rehabilitation are in a good position to help students make the transition from the classroom to the world of work.

This is a much needed book. It should be read by everyone who feels that he has a stake in the rehabilitation of our disabled young people and of our disabled men and women. Mr. Allan has greatly increased the book's usefulness by the addition of extensive bibliographies and of author and subject indexes.

LOUIS J. CANTONI

Activities Handbook for Business Teachers—Clubs, Plays, and Projects by HELEN HINKSON GREEN. New York: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1958. 369 pages, \$5.00.

With the increase in business-subject enrollments in recent years and the consequent extension of objectives to be achieved by capable business students, many business teachers have

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been confronted with extracurricular responsibilities they are unprepared and often unwilling to assume. For such teachers Helen Hinkson Green's handbook on activities is a godsend. For all business teachers, including those experienced in activities work (whether it be called "extracurricular," "cocurricular," or "allied"), this handbook is a valuable source of information and suggestions on matters such as business clubs, plays and programs, exhibits, the yearbook, the school newspaper, field trips, special events to highlight the work of the business department, and fund-raising activities. This reader would have preferred a concluding section devoted to home-room guidance activities rather than the teacher's professional activities, if only to keep the book directly pupil centered; however, beginning teachers might sensibly prefer the closing pages as they are, with information and advice on activities related to teaching, such as writing for publication and participating in the work of professional organizations.

Outstanding qualities of the book are its readability, the sense of liveliness and fun imparted by the author in her discussion of ways to develop group feeling, and the treasure of practical, usable material that is in commendable contrast to the enthusiastic but too general

advice found in some books. For example, ten complete, original scripts are given for possible use as television, radio, or assembly programs. Plans for all activities—from the sponsorship of clubs to preparation for parents' night—are detailed and definite, with precautions especially valuable for the inexperienced sponsor. Annotated sources of further information are given.

Counselors and nonbusiness teachers, as well as business teachers, will like this book. It is solid, sound, and lively. For business teachers it should be required reading.

MARION M. LAMB

What's Happened to Our High Schools?
by JOHN F. LATIMER. Washington, D.C.:
Public Affairs Press, 1958. 196 pages,
\$3.25.

Classicist Latimer admits, in his introduction, to an "American failure to recognize the importance of the high school curriculum and the vital connection between education and national security." He closes with a profession of awe at the growth of the public high school and a sense of pride in its accomplishment. This study pursues the explanation for an enigma in a new version of the growth of American sec-

ondary education. The work is heavily documented with Office of Education records and other secondary sources of reference which he interprets well.

Compacted statistical facts appear in palatable and intriguing chapter pellets calculated to stimulate the thoughtful reader and to epitomize meaning for the studious. Captions like "An Innocent Paradox" turn the tables on the popular conception of the public school's dual role. "A Baker's Dozen" neatly packages the curriculum into one bag. "Split Level Education" (college preparation or terminal training) is subjected to critical evaluation. "The Janus Look" rather dramatically details the break in the curriculum tradition. Looking with favor on the new, his twin deity scans the horizon for the return to the educational firmament of the eclipsed mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

This work challenges with controvertible, but honestly derived figures, some popular misconceptions of American education. We did not come to our impasse by neglect or by design but by the evolvings of our cultural aspirations in the educational setting. We should not like to relinquish the one nor can we afford to sacrifice the other.

CHARLES A. BERTHOLD

The Teaching of Geography by ZOE A. THRALLS. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1958. 339 pages, \$3.75.

Drawing upon many years of experience, Dr. Thralls has packed this volume with many an illustration of *how to do it* in geography teaching. This is a book for the social studies teacher as well as the teacher of geography on whatever level.

The design of the book is best understood by analysis of Chapter 2, "Maps and Globes Are Our Business." After a list of the objectives for map reading, a section follows on the principles for teaching map reading. Then follows the meat of the chapter, "Techniques for Developing Map Skills." An important part is the discussion on teaching the globe. The section on problem solving, using real or hypothetical maps, is particularly fine.

In Chapters 3 through 7 a similar organization pattern is used in consideration of the use of pictures, graphs, and statistics, reading landscapes, current events, and reading. Throughout Dr. Thralls has drawn liberally from the literature of the past twenty-five years, going back to such stalwarts as Edith Parker and Derwent Whittlesey. She includes such contemporaries

as Edgar Dale and Mamie Anderzhon as well. She realizes that there is a timelessness to some techniques which make them perennial favorites.

Special mention should be made of a particularly fine section entitled "Techniques for Improving Ability to Read Geographic Materials." The teacher who learns the skills which are illustrated will be not only a better teacher of geography but also of reading.

Chapter 8 presents criteria for the selection of texts, geographic readers, reference materials, travel books, and scientific reports, fiction, poetry, and essays. Suggestions for the uses of these materials are stimulating. Chapter 9 deals with unit planning of a nature most helpful to the in-service teacher. The illustrations of functional activities tie in well with the study activities found in most geography texts. In the unit given, problem solving is emphasized.

The remaining two chapters are concerned with the special problem of geographic readiness and the teaching of weather and climate.

The text would seem to be of greater usefulness to the in-service teacher than to the student in teachers college. However, in the hands of the capable college teacher there is utility for the methods course in the social studies.

HERBERT G. TAG

Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Dr. Berthold, who lives in Ramsey, New Jersey, is in charge of research and special services in the public schools of Clifton, New Jersey. He is a former high-school principal and the author of *Administrative Concern for Individual Differences*.

Dr. Cantoni is associate professor of special education and vocational rehabilitation and coordinator of the rehabilitation counselor training program at Wayne State University. He is also president of the Detroit chapter of the Michigan Rehabilitation Association.

Dr. Hansford is assistant professor of educational administration at Michigan State University.

Dr. Lamb is professor of business administration at Sacramento State College, Sacramento, California, and has had three books published by South-Western Publishing Company.

Dr. Tag, associate professor of education at the University of Connecticut, was formerly assistant superintendent of the Kanawha County schools in Charleston, West Virginia.

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Paperbound Review

A Concise Treasury of Great Poems, English and American, edited by LOUIS UNTERMAYER. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1958. 563 pages, 50 cents.

Hundreds of poems from Chaucer and the Elizabethan sonneteers down through the ages to T. S. Eliot, Stephen Spender, and Marianne Moore are included in this anthology compiled by Louis Untermeyer. Further distinction is added to this volume by stories of the lives and times of the poets as well as interpretations of their works contained in this publication.

Faster Reading Self-Taught by HARRY SHEFTER. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1958. 387 pages, 50 cents.

Through a series of short, easy-to-take self-tests, this publication intends to point out exactly what is wrong with one's reading. Once the weaknesses are known, a five-step plan is discussed to effect immediate remedies.

For students there is a special chapter, "How to Answer Reading Questions on Examinations." It is based on actual samples from the New York State Regents, United States Civil Service, and College Entrance Board exams.

Four Great Comedies of the Restoration and 18th Century by WILLIAM WYCHERLEY, WILLIAM CONGREVE, OLIVER GOLDSMITH, and RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN. New York 36: Bantam Books, Inc., 1958. 321 pages, 50 cents.

Following an introduction written by Brooks Atkinson, four great comedies of the Restoration and Eighteenth Century are included in this volume. The four comedies presented are: *The Country Wife*, *The Way of the World*, *She Stoops to Conquer*, and *The School for Scandal*.

Great Flying Stories edited by FRANK W. ANDERSON, JR. New York 17: Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1958. 256 pages, 35 cents.

This original publication covers the brief and spectacular age of aviation from its childhood during World War I to its jet and rocket maturity. Stories by twenty writers are included in this anthology, all concerned with man's

efforts to fly longer, higher, faster, and more safely.

The Greek Philosophers by REX WARNER. New York 22: New American Library of World Literature, Inc., 1958. 240 pages, 50 cents.

A complete survey of Greek philosophy from the beginnings in Ionia to the decline under the Roman Empire is contained in this original publication. The volume includes selections from important texts on stoicism, cynicism and skepticism as well as abstracts from the basic writings of Thales, Plato, Aristotle, Socrates, and others.

Language for Everybody by MARIO PEI. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1958. 340 pages, 50 cents.

Written by a famous linguistic authority, this volume is designed to give the reader a deeper comprehension of mankind's most important tool—communication. The text is divided into six parts: Language in Your Daily Life, Language in the Laboratory, History of Language, Sociological Implications of Language, Languages in Comparison, and Some Practical Language Hints.

A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading by NANCY LARRICK. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1958. 258 pages, 35 cents.

This handbook is a unique publishing venture which was initiated by the National Book Committee in an effort to encourage more children to read more widely. Eighteen national organizations co-operated with this committee and produced a publication which will be of interest to parents as well as teachers.

After discussing the matter of reading with the parents, the book gives suggestions for arousing curiosity and interest in books with very young children. Additional sections are devoted to acquisition and use of a home library, an explanation of how reading is taught to children at school, and an annotated listing of children's books and magazines.

The Pocket Aristotle edited by JUSTIN D. KAPLAN. New York 20: Pocket Books, Inc., 1958. 381 pages, 50 cents.

In this volume of selections from Aristotle, the editor has included the most widely read, studied, and quoted works of the great philosopher. The prefatory notes give the reader a convenient and concise review of each work and present the main ideas of a man who has often been called the world's most important thinker.

Pamphlet Review

Algebra I Workbook by OSCAR E. MILLER and MYRRL SUMMERS. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N.Y.: World Book Co., 1958. 184 pages, \$1.32.

This workbook provides material to enrich the introductory course in algebra. It covers the topics offered in any standard modern textbook for algebra I. Each section begins with a concise definition or explanation that is applied to a sample problem or two as a guide for the student.

In addition to the usual drill in fundamental operations, numerous verbal problems that require the use of mathematical reasoning are included.

Basic Study Skills by GLENN W. WILCOX. Boston 8: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1958. 185 pages, \$5.35.

There is a significant correlation between academic achievement and good study habits. Many studies have indicated that failure in school may be traced to the inability of a student to study effectively. This "how-to-study" book goes beyond mere advice giving and provides more than theoretical information. It is designed to give the student interested in developing positive study attitudes the opportunity to apply these study skills to the actual school situation in which he may find himself. Vocabulary, effective reading and study, basic writing skills, and a self-analysis program are some of the topics explored in this text.

While *Basic Study Skills* is primarily designed for college students, it has distinct value to high-school students, particularly those preparing for college.

Biology (Regents Course) (Curriculum Bulletin No. 10, 1956-57 series) by the Board of Education of the City of New York, 1958. 205 pages, 80 cents.

This course of study and syllabus in biology bring together and make available the approaches, techniques, and materials that have been developed by teachers and supervisors in New York City schools. It is a most complete treatment of this subject area and will be of considerable help to all high-school teachers of biology.

Copies of this publication may be purchased from the Board of Education of the City of New York, Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N.Y.

Checks should be made payable to the Auditor, Board of Education.

Family Life Education Resource Guide, Grades 1 through 12, prepared by Teachers and Parents of the Roanoke City Public Schools, Roanoke, Virginia. New York 19: American Social Hygiene Association (1790 Broadway), 1958. 106 pages, \$1.00.

Forty teachers and parents of Roanoke, Virginia, under the sponsorship of the American Social Hygiene Association, have produced this guide. Hundreds of tested activities, a specimen unit, and bibliographies of books, pamphlets, films, and filmstrips and recordings are included. Applicable to grades 1 through 12, this material will be of value as a source of suggested classroom activities, as the basis for in-service programs, and as a curriculum planning aid.

The High School Principal and Staff Deal with Discipline (Secondary School Administration Series) by OVID F. PARODY. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. 93 pages, \$1.25.

When large numbers of students are assembled within a school setting, the problems of individual and group behavior are frequently multiplied, and the magnitude of the task of guiding young people into socially acceptable patterns of behavior is greatly increased. This monograph deals with a positive approach to the problems that youth face as they become subjected to adult patterns of behavior.

The author has drawn upon experience and study to develop a program for a fictional junior high school. The material which is presented is pertinent for older youth as well as the faculties of senior high schools. This work provides a guide to the improvement of school discipline by the principal and staff.

The High School Principal and Staff Plan for Program Improvement (Secondary School Administration Series) by PAUL M. MITCHUM. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1958. 103 pages, \$1.25.

The responsibility for educating American youth is largely concentrated on the local school level. This situation places a heavy burden upon the staff of local school systems and individual schools. It therefore has become an integral part of the work of teachers and administrators to deal with the critical matter of constantly developing and improving the program of instruction. The author describes a procedure which has had success in cultivating co-operative efforts among administrators, teachers, and other staff members.

This booklet will be of direct help to those who face the constant challenges of making meaningful the program of learning for American youth.

Latin American Studies (a Teacher's Guide to Resource Materials) prepared by G. DERWOOD BAKER and FRANKLIN K. PATTERSON. New York 20: Creole Petroleum Corp., Educational Section (1230 Avenue of the Americas), 1958. 27 pages.

Social studies teachers will find this guide to resource materials of value when they introduce teaching units concerned with Latin America. The Creole Petroleum Corporation offers this pamphlet, one to a teacher, without charge. Address requests to the Educational Section of this company.

Library Provisions in Council Schools. New York 27: Metropolitan School Study Council (525 West 120th St.), 1958. 59 pages, \$1.00.

The results of a special study carried out by a panel of librarians is reported in this booklet. Qualifications of library personnel, extent and nature of library services, and expenditures per pupil for library facilities are discussed in great detail. A special feature includes a diary-type description of a "typical working day" in the life of each of two librarians.

This publication will be useful to any school or community group embarking on appraising local library facilities, making possible a comparison with library provisions in well-financed school communities and with the standards set by the American Library Association.

Pictures, Pamphlets and Packets. Washington 6, D.C.: National Aviation Education Council, Materials of Instruction Committee (1025 Connecticut Ave., N.W.), 1958. 17 pages.

More than 240 free and inexpensive aviation education teaching aids are contained in this pamphlet. Included in the list are booklets, pictures, study units, bulletins which provide information on aviation careers, weather, theory of flight, and many other allied subjects.

Single copies may be obtained free and provisions are made for quantity orders.

The Space Frontier. Washington 6, D.C.: National Aviation Education Council, Materials of Instruction Committee (1025 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.), 1958. 19 pages, 25 cents.

The Space Frontier, with astronautics glossary, describes in nontechnical language what man will encounter as he reaches toward the stars.

This pamphlet is well illustrated with charts and photographs and contains a glossary of more than 200 definitions of the most common astronautics terms now found in newspapers, magazines, and current books on space.

Books Received

Basic Physics, Vol. 1, by ALEXANDER FERON. New York 11: John F. Rider Publisher, Inc., 1957. 692 pages, \$7.60.

Biology—a Basic Science by ELWOOD D. HEISS and RICHARD H. LAPE. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1958. 648 pages, \$4.88.

Bookkeeping and Accounting Simplified, First-Year Course (2d ed.), by M. HERBERT FREEMAN, J. MARSHALL HANNA, and GILBERT KAHN. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1958. 499 pages, \$3.56.

Bookkeeping and Accounting Simplified, Advanced Course, by M. HERBERT FREEMAN, J. MARSHALL HANNA, and GILBERT KAHN. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1958. 408 pages, \$3.96.

Business Fundamentals for Everyone (4th ed.) by CHARLES FANCHER and J. FRANCIS GALLAGHER. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. 552 pages, \$3.60.

Business Mathematics, Principles and Practice—Complete (5th ed.) by R. ROBERT ROSENBERG and HARRY LEWIS. New York 36: Gregg Publishing Division, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1958. 560 pages, \$3.84.

Handbook of Co-ed Teen Activities by EDYTHE and DAVID DEMARCHE. New York 7: Association Press, 1958. 640 pages, \$7.95.

How to Understand and Teach Teen-agers by JOHN M. GRAN. Minneapolis 15, Minn.: T. S. Denison and Co., 1958. 229 pages, \$3.95.

The New Let's Drive Right by MAXWELL HALSEY. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1958. 320 pages, \$3.00.

Readings in Applied English Linguistics edited by HAROLD B. ALLEN. New York 1: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1958. 428 pages, \$3.75.

Spelling and Word Power by DEAN R. MALSARY. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. 131 pages, \$2.48.

The Story of Human Emotions by GEORGE M. LOTT. New York: Philosophical Library, Inc., 1958. 228 pages, \$4.95.

Understanding Your Car by SAMUEL C. BEELER. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1958. 128 pages, \$1.60 (paper cover).

➤ The Humanities Today ➤

Associate Editor: HENRY B. MALONEY

TV & NEWER MEDIA

The Implicit Message

Actions, according to the old saw, speak loudly. Whether they leave as lasting an impression as words depends upon the nature of the action. When the two are combined and action is accompanied by words, as is the case with drama, the effect can be almost as moving as life itself. Such was the situation with a movie and a television play which appeared about the same time early last fall.

Stanley Kramer's movie, *The Defiant Ones*, and the "Playhouse 90" production, *The Days of Wine and Roses*, are virtually classics in their respective media, thanks to vivid action and strong thematic words which spell out but do not preach a message. In each the emphasis is on art rather than dogmatism. They are entertainments with depth rather than lessons with sugar-coating.

By depicting Sidney Poitier and Tony Curtis as convicts, Mr. Kramer evokes, through the chain-gang motif, the latent violence and smoldering hatreds that characterize racism. The theme dates back as far as the time when man began to subjugate his fellow man on the basis of skin color. Because of the primitiveness of the setting, the idea comes across more forcefully than the message in *Pinky*, Twentieth Century-Fox's urbane thrust at the same problem.

The Defiant Ones has other classic qualities besides timelessness. Concern over racial brotherhood is a problem for all mankind. The "how" of the picture—acting, direction, photography—provides a handsome frame for the "what." There is none of the excess sight-and-sound tinsel with which Hollywood often tries to deck out its inferior products.

Almost equally impressive when one considers the staccato of commercials which drums away at "Playhouse 90" productions was J. P. Miller's *The Days of Wine and Roses*. The play, which related in a series of flashbacks how a pair of social drinkers became alcoholics, for the most part avoided preaching. Inasmuch as the continuity of the play hinged on a talk the main character was giving before an Alcoholics Anonymous group, the author's restraint is all the more commendable.

Mr. Miller also resisted a treacly ending by having only the husband able to regain the road to sobriety. But the chief power of the piece came through Piper Laurie's memorable portrayal of a young woman in the throes of a binge. At a time when on-screen and off-screen portrayals of female lushes have been about a dime a quart, so to speak, Miss Laurie's haunting picture of a drunken wife was at the same time elfin and grotesque, a vivid cutting from a bad dream.

When motion pictures and television have something worth while to say and can say it without parading their techniques and spelling out the messages in garish neon, they can be eloquent. Independent-minded teen-agers, who tend to shy away from explicit didacticism, will find that drama in the tradition of *The Defiant Ones* and *The Days of Wine and Roses* is something more than a couple of hours of intense entertainment. It evokes thoughts which man can mull over for a lifetime.

H. B. M.

POEMS FOR TEACHING

So far, we have considered individual poems as instruments which might afford students insight into the nature of reading itself. Certainly this is the major aim of a poetry class: when all is said and done, no teacher offers students drill in metrics, tone, imagery, diction, figures of speech simply for the sake of the component parts themselves. The hope, of course, is that as the patterns of relationship between the components become clear, the student will become aware of the vitally important role that language plays in his consciousness; he will become aware of the ways in which the heightened sensibilities communicated in an art form provide him, in turn, with more *sensible* ways of perceiving and organizing experience. To this extent, no teacher falls back upon an outmoded and culturally snobbish rationale for the humanities when he says that poetry, or any successful art form, can make a deep and living difference in the ways that human beings use their lives.

Perhaps, then, the attempt to synthesize a statement of the sensibilities of a poet, a state-

ment of theme, from samples of a poet's work, might prove to be a fruitful experiment. Too often, for instance, the student is unable to transfer what he has learned from a poetry class to what he is learning in a class in general literature. He may have acquired some specific notions of how to add together the parts of a poem, but has only a cloudy idea, if any, of how to add entire poems together to obtain a general theme. He knows that the poet, *What's His Name*, says such and such because "the book says so," or "teacher says so." Neither the book nor teacher intends that Johnny and Jane should reduce human insights to a rote formula. Moreover, teacher knows that if Johnny and Jane are at all interested, beneath their acquiescent recitations there lurks a doubt concerning how the book or the teacher *knows* the conclusions being given. Who says so? I don't find all this in the poem we read by *What's His Name*!

Sometimes a little cruelty is more in order than repeated statement. Shift the responsibility for defense to the shoulders of Johnny and Jane. When they work with an individual poem, the total context for the parts already is provided—the poem itself. When they relate poem to poem, however, they have to undertake the role of book or teacher and make their own total conclusion. Frankly, it's a long-shot chance, but one that pays off handsomely if it pays off at all. To reduce the risks, it is a good idea to use a poet whose subject matter, sentence structure, and diction are quickly available to students—a poet, as has been suggested here before, like Edwin Arlington Robinson. Robinson is especially good for the purpose because, while the surface narrative of his poems is understandable and enjoyable (at least for those students who can be reached by poetry in the first place), the informing attitudes and ideas are subtly evasive. The themes of Robinson's poems tantalizingly are only half hidden, like a visible, camouflaged object which the eye sees but does not easily define. The student's first reaction probably will be, "Oh, this is easy!"—until he tries to reproduce the poems in statements which do not reduce the poems to simple-minded moral clichés. Because it is necessary to go over the individual poems first in class, and because an embarrassment of riches is more likely to damage the student than to help him, it is a good idea, as a bulwark against chaos, to limit the number of poems which the student may use in his attempt to synthesize a controlling generalization. The poems I would suggest for Robinson are "Miniver Cheevy," "Richard Cory," "Mr. Flood's Party," "Reuben Bright,"

"Flammonde," "Cliff Klingenhagen," and "Credo," to be treated in that order.*

Naturally, there are countless methods of attack upon any of these poems. However, "Miniver Cheevy" might best be handled as an exercise in the way tone creates meaning. For instance, the last line of stanza one ("And he had reasons") in the context of the poem establishes a sense of light satire. Miniver's longing for the past is totally disproportionate to his actions: the longing, of course, is *not* justification for Cheevy's growing lean and hungry in his ranting curse upon the present, nor, especially, for his cheap evasion of any attempt to meet the meanings and actualities of the time in which he does live. Miniver, were he transferred to his "romantic" past, would find just as many excuses to repudiate his environment for unimaginative and utilitarian flatness. He would always long for some "other" time or place in an excuse for his own failures. Robinson, however, never allows the poem to degenerate into uncontrolled bathos; he always maintains the light satirical touch, as the last line of the last stanza makes obvious: "Miniver Cheevy, born too late, / Scratched his head and kept on thinking; / Miniver coughed, and called it fate, / And kept on drinking." The tone guides the reader's attitude toward Cheevy. Here is a man who does not earn pity, but ridicule. Though his accusations of his times may be abstractly justifiable, his weak response to life turns whatever heroic qualities he might have as a rebel into mere ludicrousness. The incongruity which is the core of the ludicrousness is created precisely by the disproportion between Miniver's ideas and actions—which results in the meaning-creating tone. (Be careful not to let the students reduce this poem to a pretty, little moral warning about the Evil of Drink. Some will try to!)

"Richard Cory," on the other hand, depends for its effect upon the sudden reversal in the last two lines. The poem becomes, therefore, fertile ground for the exploration of images. The images which present Cory in the first three quatrains leave no room for any specific reasons for the man's suicide. Students are likely to say that Cory had no friends, or that he was disappointed in love; but the poem allows no one certainty about such matters. The shocking reversal of the last two lines serves to annihilate

* All but "Flammonde" and "Cheevy" are in *The Pocket Book of Modern Verse* edited by Oscar Williams (New York: Pocket Books, rev. ed., 1958). "Flammonde" and "Cheevy" can be copied in mimeograph from almost any anthology of American literature.

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the imagery in a way that creates the poem's idea; that is, regardless of whatever real accomplishments or assets a man has (and Cory has many), and regardless of whatever appearances of inviolability a man may present (and Cory presents them all), he is still a mortal man subject to limitation. Like everyman he "went without the" metaphoric "meat, and cursed the bread," and "waited for the light" that could be found only in what was cursed.

"Mr. Flood's Party" affords the student a chance to study out patterns of imagery or motifs. In this poem, the patterns generally divide into suggestions of isolation and community, past and present, experience and expectation. While the poem is too long to be mined for examples in the space allotted here, it is so rich in illustrations of the general motifs that the student has less trouble with it than anyone has the right to expect. By the time he finishes "Flood," with its picture of ebbing life as a climb up a lonesome hill, the student should begin to see that these poems, as a total body of work, are not simply separate character sketches but begin to unite in a larger comment upon man's relationship to his experiences. The center of the over-all theme does not lie in the study of any one of Robinson's characters, but

in the very process of climbing, in which all the characters are mutually involved. As a *behavior*, then, Cheevy holds no hope or possibility of an ennobled identity for man. Quitting is its own reward. Cory maintains a high level of human dignity until he too succumbs to the climb. Old Eben Flood begins to round out the study of behaviors: a dogged, stubborn will to persevere, to maintain life and identity in the face of all the lonely anguish imposed by callous life upon mortal limitation is the very process by which, through suffering, man attains his stature. (Robinson once said of the universe, "I have always told you it's a hell of a place. That's why it must mean something.")

In "Flammonde," the conditions of human possibility and defeat are almost explicitly given. (For "Reuben Bright" see this column in *The Clearing House* for November, 1957, pages 189-90.)

Again, the poem works against itself purposely, in order to create idea. On the one hand, Flam-monde, the flame, or light of the world, exerts himself to save and redeem others. (Some students will have fun with the punning hints Robinson furnishes in his titles.) "The Prince of Castaways," he is at once the forsaken Christ, Adam, and Satan—Robinson's definition of man.

"We've each a darkening hill to climb;/ And that is why, from time to time/ In Tilbury Town, we look beyond/ Horizons for the man Flammonde." Man is redeemer and saviour when, in his recognition of the inescapable and inevitable conditions of "climbing," he helps drag his fellow humans up to one higher notch of nobility, to one higher possibility in the evolving definition of man. On the other hand, in the next to last stanza the reader is told that Flammonde committed suicide (and the student will probably miss this). As Christ, man saves man. As Satan, he destroys himself ("what small satanic sort of kink was in his brain?"). Ultimately man is thwarted, in his drive toward perfection, by limitation. No matter how high he climbs, he must yet climb for all eternity, for the literal inviolability, infallibility, and perfection of God do not take a real place in the human definition. In actuality, man must "borrow graciously" the "fee to live"; there is always the "shieldlike surface" of defensive deceit covering, in appearances of perfection, the mortal within. Man is dependent upon his own resources for the heroism or destructiveness with which he climbs and from which he takes his identity: thus man is Adam, too, always to struggle upward, lifting his own bootstraps in the howling and bitter realities of his life east of Eden.

"Klingenhagen" is one of the few "successful" men Robinson creates. Aware that he must drink bitterness because of a life in which man must always resist himself and circumstance, he attains a happiness attendant upon his recognition of what it means to be human. Significantly, like Flammonde, this cliff-clinger also tries to secure the glass of joy for others. The "something," then, that this "hell of a place" must mean is suggested in "Credo." The anguish of mortal struggle in a world where the old faiths and gods are dead (the first eleven lines of the sonnet) has as its own meaning the possibilities for enlargement that come from that very anguish (the last three lines). Robinson is not necessarily advancing a teleological argument here. Simply, in terms of *his own life*, man cannot have been struggling up the scale for nothing. The meaning of the climb is its own "far-sent message of the years"; the new dimensions of love and brotherhood and sacrifice it offers man through a common suffering regardless of appearances, money, or social degree, is its own "coming glory of the Light."

Certainly, no student can be expected to see the total body of implication—at least, frankly, none of mine did. But the better-than-half of

the students who become aware of the direction toward unity gain in two ways. Basically they gain practice in the manipulation of individual poems. Moreover, in their own attempt to fuse poems in the creation of total construct, they force upon themselves (through the Robinson-like agony of analysis) an awareness of the larger purposes for which every teacher sweats to explain metrics, tone, imagery, diction, and figures of speech in the first place.

MILTON R. STERN
University of Connecticut

PRINTED PERSPECTIVES

To Whom Are Admen Responsible?

The Responsibilities of American Advertising: Private Control and Public Influence, 1920-1940, by OTIS PEASE. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1958. 232 pages, \$5.00. (Yale Publications in American Studies, II, ed. David Horne.)

Its apt epigraph from *Walden* (on Thoreau, the artful dodger of Concord's unhidden hucksters) helps explain why this valuable and imaginative study is a pioneering effort, rather than a solid addition to a much needed but largely unwritten shelf of books on the contours of mass America. For, however much Henry added to the distinction of American literature, his ploy with the Pond (of which his compulsive evasion of advertising was the in-town phase) has become the archetypal humanist withdrawal from the ambiguities of the mass society. But if a certain preindustrial nostalgia has caused American historians to neglect the emergence of the characteristic institutions of contemporary America, it is reassuring to see so competent a belated ground breaking. For Pease not only adds substantially to our knowledge of advertising as an institution; he also displays remarkable methodological expertise with new kinds of data for intellectual history and suggests persuasively a pressing agenda for research.

Wisely limiting himself to national advertising in *print* media between the World Wars, Pease has described the evolution of the crucial concept of public responsibility in advertising under the conflicting pressures of advertisers, agencies, publishers, and trade associations on the one hand, and government, professionals (doctors and dentists), and the consumer movement on the other. In eight topical chapters, he describes the origin of national advertising in

the creation of national markets and the differential utility of such marketing for various products; the espousal of a "radical" philosophy of consumption consciously intended to subvert the Puritan ethic of thrift and restraint, and designed to support an economy of abundance; the inadequacies of private, internal regulation determined largely by businessmen's complaints of unfair competitive practices, inadequacies somewhat mitigated by rising standards of acceptance among a few elite publishers; the attempts to generate effective outside pressures by the American Medical Association, retailers defending private brands against the competition of nationally advertised products, and the Consumer Movement's factual needling of copywriters' balloons; the ambiguous results of regulation by the Food and Drug Administration and the Federal Trade Commission; the industry's reactions to these private and public pressures by elaborating a more sophisticated rationale for advertising—culminating in the monumental study by the Harvard Graduate School of Business in 1942 of the economic effects of advertising; and the growing dependence of the industry's "weapons of persuasion" on psychological research. The author's most significant conclusions include the advertising industry's crucial redefinition of "the good life" as the increasing consumption of "goods," its inability to curb any behavior not found objectionable *within* the industry, and his hypothesis that no institution has "done more to circumvent the process and operation of rational thought in a free society."

PATRICK D. HAZARD
University of Pennsylvania

TV's Rare Moments of Wisdom

Wisdom: Conversations with the Elder Wise Men of Our Day edited by JAMES NELSON. New York: W. W. Norton and Co., 1958. 273 pages, \$3.95.

For those of us who have a lover's quarrel with TV for her complacent satisfaction with the merely satisfactory, it is always a pleasure to point at magnificent TV and say: "See what I mean; see why I love her!" The N.B.C.-TV series of filmed conversations with great living sages provided such rare moments. In each case, the attempt was not to bait a man for tomorrow's headlines but to draw out through a sympathetic guest the essence of an individual's greatness: in short, to reveal why it was important to record his thoughts for the benefit of posterity.

The range of the series has been catholic: from the arts there are poets Robert Frost and Carl Sandburg; architects Frank Lloyd Wright and Walter Gropius; painter Marcel Duchamp, sculptor Jacques Lipchitz, and photographer Edward Steichen; and musicians Wanda Landowska and Pablo Casals. From politics and business, Herbert Hoover, Alfred P. Sloan, Jr., Eamon DeValera, and Jawaharlal Nehru—in all, twenty-four profiles of greatness, two dozen deviations from the mediocre norm.

In addition to a thoughtful introduction, editor James Nelson has chosen a packet of expressive stills from the films, and bibliographies for further readings by each subject. He also notes that these films are available for use in the schools through Encyclopaedia Britannica Films.

The series begins again this month on Sunday afternoon.

P. D. H.

Big Schoolhouse in the Red?

Schoolhouse: What to Do When Your Neighborhood Needs a School edited by WALTER MCQUADE. New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1958. 271 pages, \$10.

This handsome volume might well be considered a monument to whatever is left of our nostalgic memories of the good old "little red schoolhouse." For as a thorough guidebook to school building in a complex urban society, it reveals by implication the folly of those fuzzily fond recollections of the school that was good enough for grandpa. The problem of course, as suggested by Alcoa's President in his introduction, is that forty-five million children have been born since World War II in the United States; and it is estimated that more than 500,000 classrooms must be provided in the next seven years—at a tab of some twenty billion dollars. Clearly, and especially because of the decentralized nature of American school building, it is important that this investment be based on the best available professional experience and opinion about school planning and financing. That's what this manual is for.

The book is in four sections: (1) the approach (why a community needs a school tailored to its character; what the psychology and sociology of children have to suggest about the shape of a building; what new communication media and adult leisure patterns might demand of a building); (2) the action (organizing leadership; choosing an architect; convincing the community; getting down to dollars and sense—

such as the 10.5 billions spent annually for alcohol, 2.5 billions for school buildings; shopping the bond market); (3) the consciously contrived environment of learning (its site and climate; the structure; acoustics; lighting and wiring; furniture; heating and plumbing); (4) the visual results (a primer on design and a brilliant tour of well-designed schools in every kind of locality—from the air, from the inside, in details of construction, roofs, windows, lighting, acoustics, built-ins, and decorative art, and "character"—a final portfolio revealing the plurality of dialects in the language of modern American architecture, each variation expressing the individuality of a special locale). A detailed bibliography adds to the book's value.

Over 500 billion dollars will be spent in the next decade for all kinds of American building. There are many signs that a depressing percentage of this building will be an investment in ugliness. The chances would be much higher for a decent man-made landscape in America had the last generation of Americans gone to schools as beautiful as those in this collection. It is crucial enough for us to demand well-designed and attractive schools for pedagogical reasons; but as a down payment on the transformation of the entire landscape, good school architecture is the best possible teacher of the taxpayers and builders of tomorrow.

P. D. H.

From the Critics' Notebook

SCARCITY OF TV CRITICISM (Gilbert Seldes in the *Saturday Review* for September 20, 1958): "We residents of megalopolis haven't the faintest idea—until we begin to travel—of the scarcity of criticism outside the big cities. In a Western city of nearly half a million, helpless citizens told me that their most influential news-

paper had never run a column of useful criticism of TV, although it headlined in its news columns every derogatory opinion expressed in Congress or elsewhere. Newspapers in smaller cities are hostile to TV, print the program schedules reluctantly, and pretend their subscribers have no sets.

"These newspapers are vulnerable to pressure and it is the duty of good citizens to apply the pressure. But the good citizen is inhibited by fear of being called a do-gooder. He must learn—in connection with the mass media—to think of himself as an unofficial adviser—at most an unofficial legislator. He must resolutely prefer even the prisiest of 'uplift' to the steady down-grading of quality which is bound to occur in any business affected with the public interest if the public isn't aware of its own interest. He has to know that eternal vigilance is the price of excellence as well as of liberty and that vigilance which does not lead to action is as fatal as blind ignorance."

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"Well, frankly, Lawrence, no. To tell you the truth, there is something about child performers with their cuddly bow ties, neatly slicked hair and patent leather smiles that I find almost unbearably offensive. And when I am forced to listen to them playing oom-pah music or ersatz Dixieland, I get the feeling they would be far better off playing at home with their hula-hoops.

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THE SOCIAL EDUCATION OF THE ACADEMICALLY TALENTED

RUTH WOOD GAVIAN, *Editor*

This volume will be most welcome by teachers, at all grade levels, administrators, supervisors, and all others concerned with curriculum development.

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NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

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"I will say nothing about Welk's 'champagne music' except that it strikes me as formula music, singularly lacking in bubbles. It tastes more like yesterday's ginger ale—flat and vapid. However, for all those Welk fans entranced by the grins of Welk performers, I would recommend an occasional look at Welk band members who are not seen in close-up on camera.

"Perhaps not realizing they can be seen, the band members—when someone else is soloing—sit at their stands with looks of infinite boredom on their faces.

"It's only when the cameras zero in that the smiles click on like traffic lights."

On Family Situation Comedies: "The more I watch TV family situation comedies, the more I become convinced that CBS-TV's 'Leave It to Beaver' is the class of its field. Its humor is warm without being cloying, its plots are inventive without being far-fetched and the members of its family are attractive and real.

"The two kids in 'Beaver'—Jerry Mathers and Tony Dow—have been given most of the credit for making the series click. But I think at least a passing nod should be given to Barbara Billingsley and Hugh Beaumont who play the parents with unsticky cheer."

On Audience Participation Shows: "Almost all of TV's audience participation shows—with their feigned amiability and hyped-up jolliness—stand in nauseous contrast to the Marx half-hour.

"The contestants on such shows as . . . 'The Price Is Right' and 'Music Bingo' keep their good-humored simpers going at full blast for the entire course of each show. They are encouraged to behave this way, I suppose—it is part of TV's quaint folklore that 'entertainment' is just another word for a full set of teeth, displayed extravagantly and often.

"One of the most unfortunate consequences of this phony 'oooh' and 'aaah' sickness is that the studio audience has been cajoled into falling grinning victim to it.

"On 'The Price Is Right' the audience gushes and goes and almost drips saliva on the announcer as he calls off the loot to be distributed. I often find it difficult to understand why. Last night, the audience coveted such casual clutter as a tuba, an ugly breakfront, a ship model, and a 50-foot trailer.

"I find this display of hysterical greed—this desire to possess something, anything, just for the sake of possessing it—both disturbing and sad."

Audio-Visual News

By EVERETT B. LARE

Audio-Visual Manual

CHAPTER II

Still Projected Pictures

All projected images need a source of light, a screen, and adequate darkening facilities to make the projected image visible on the screen.

The *filmstrip projector* is one of the simplest projectors. The filmstrip is a series of pictures on a 35-millimeter film. They are projected one at a time on a screen by light shining through the film. The speed of projection is under the control of the teacher, who usually is supplying the commentary. The sound slide filmstrip has the commentary recorded on tape or a record. It is possible that an impulse from the recording may advance the filmstrip one frame at a time. Many filmstrip projectors have attachments permitting the showing of 2" by 2" slides. These slides are made from the film of the popular 35-millimeter cameras. If the film were not cut into slides, a double-frame filmstrip would result. The operator can project double-frame filmstrips on many of the 2" by 2" projectors by changing the light aperture.

The 3 1/4" by 4" lantern slide projector, which has been on the market for many years, is still in use. The operation of it is the same as the 2" by 2" slide projector. Its advantage is that slides may be made by the teacher and pupils. Pencil, crayon, colored ink, typewriter carbon, and colored acetate may be used in making the slides by hand. In fact, the ink from colored pictures on a glossy paper may actually be removed and deposited on a slide. The Polaroid camera will make transparencies in black and white, sizes 3 1/4" by 4" and 2 1/4" by 2 1/4". A special projector is necessary for the 2 1/4" by 2 1/4" size.

The overhead projector is an improvement on the slide projector. In this, the slide is placed on a flat surface and projected over the head of the teacher. This means that the teacher may face the class during the projection. Other advantages are that features on the slide may be pointed out and additions made during projection. Sizes of the slides vary from 3 1/4" by 4", to 10" by 10". Most materials are hand-made, although there are some commercial materials available. The Ozalid ammonia process

and photography may be used in the making of slides, in addition to hand techniques. The technique of using overlays, in different colors, to add to the picture during projection is another advantage of the overhead.

The above projected pictures all use light transmitted through a transparent material. In contrast, the opaque projector uses light reflected from opaque materials. A strong source of light is reflected by mirrors on the opaque material and through a short focal length lens onto a screen. The greatest advantage is that the source of materials is practically unlimited and no preparation of materials is necessary. Even entire books or magazines may be inserted, although projection is usually better if only one sheet is used. Most projectors accept materials up to 12" by 12". The opaque projector is relatively light but bulky to handle. One disadvantage is that almost complete darkness is necessary for satisfactory projection.

New Materials

From INDIANA UNIVERSITY, Bloomington, Ind.:

BACTERIA LABORATORY STUDY: 15 mins., color (\$150), black and white (\$75). The film opens by showing protozoa, algae, yeast, and bacteria. The electron microscope shows photographs of viruses. Proper laboratory methods for growing and studying bacteria are explained. (Jr.—Sr. High)

MICROORGANISMS: BENEFICIAL ACTIVITIES: 15 mins., color (\$150), black and white (\$75). Beneficial activities described are: the role of bacteria in the nitrogen cycle, the treatment of sewage, production of dairy and other food products, and the commercial production of antibiotics. (Jr.—Sr. High)

MICROORGANISMS: HARMFUL ACTIVITIES: 15 mins., color (\$150), black and white (\$75). This film explains how microorganisms cause diseases and how they can be controlled. Early scientists in this field are introduced. The industrial preparation of vaccines and antitoxins is shown, and the nature of active and passive immunity is covered. Water purification, milk pasteurization, ultraviolet radiations, and chemical antiseptics are other examples given of

control of disease-causing microorganisms. (Jr.-Sr. High)

CITIZENSHIP IN ACTION: 23 mins., black and white (\$100). This film has been prepared by the National Association of Student Councils of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the use of student councils, civics classes, guidance counselors, and others. The student council is suggested as an opportunity for practicing citizenship. Final scenes of the film show the explanation of the qualities of good citizenship in everyday situations. (Jr.-Sr. High)

From **ENRICHMENT TEACHING MATERIALS**, 246 Fifth Ave., N.Y. 1, N.Y.:

Six new Enrichment filmstrips have been announced by Landmark Books. Titles in the new series include: "George Washington," "John Paul Jones," "The Vikings," "The Santa Fe Trail," "Mr. Bell Invents the Telephone," and "The Story of D-Day." Each filmstrip is accompanied by a correlated enrichment record of the same title as the filmstrip. Records are designed to be used separately with enough overlapping to reinforce learning. Each record presents an audio dramatization of the historical event while the visual filmstrip places the event in American history and stimulates class discussion. Accompanying teacher's guides are available.

Price of filmstrips: \$35 for the set of six.

From **BAILEY FILMS, INC.**, 6509 De Longpre Ave., Hollywood 28, Calif.:

IMPRESSIONISM: 7 mins., color (\$60). This film uses inspiring paintings from the country's top art museums to illustrate this kind of painting. Basic characteristics explained are: simplification of form by comparative analysis, texture and heavily painted surfaces, generalization of objects and broken color techniques. (Sr. High)

CUBISM: 7 mins., color (\$60). Animated drawings and paintings with an uncomplicated series of explanations clarify this kind of painting. These cubist tendencies are explained: multiple viewpoints, illusion of transparency, flat or decorative space, movement by repetition of design, interpenetration of forms. (Sr. High)

NONOBJECTIVE ART: 8 mins., color (\$60). This film clearly establishes what this style is and how it differs from other types. These steps are followed in the film: basic elements of line, shape, and color; uses of nonobjective art in

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From **CORONET FILMS**, 65 E. South Water St., Chicago 1, Ill.:

LAWS OF CONSERVATION OF ENERGY AND MATTER: 8 mins., color (\$75), black and white (\$41.25). Simple laboratory experiments and photographic effects illustrate the important principle that matter and energy may not be created or destroyed, but, as explained by Einstein's equation, they can be converted into one another. (Sr. High)

THE LAWS OF GASES: 11 mins., color (\$100), black and white (\$55). Animation illustrates relationships among pressure, volume, and temperature of a confined gas, the law of partial pressures, and the determining of the molecular weight of a gas. (Sr. High)

EDGAR ALLAN POE: BACKGROUND FOR HIS WORKS: 13½ mins., color (\$125), black and white (\$68.75). Paintings created in the style of Poe's writing are presented to bring back to life scenes from his works against a background of his life. Among the excerpts are "To

Helen," "The Fall of the House of Usher," "The Murders in the Rue Morgue," and "The Raven." (Sr. High)

RICE IN TODAY'S WORLD: 11 mins., color (\$100), black and white (\$55). The rice bowl of the Orient is the main emphasis in this film, showing the importance of rice as a major food crop of the world. The culture of rice is presented along with an explanation of the factors contributing to it: proper climate, water supply, and terrain. (Jr. High)

UNITED STATES EXPANSION OVERSEAS: 13½ mins., color (\$135), black and white (\$68.75). This film reviews United States expansion into the Hawaiian Islands, Cuba, the Philippines, and countries of Central America. The changing policy from isolationism toward a leading role as a world power during the terms of Cleveland, McKinley, and T. Roosevelt is emphasized. (Sr. High)

CHRISTMAS ON GRANDFATHER'S FARM (1890's): 22 mins., color (\$200), black and white (\$110). A family reunion on grandfather's farm furnishes a context for showing a past way of life—a reading of the nativity story by Grandfather, Grandma's bustling kitchen preparations, the exchange of presents on Christmas morning—all topped off with a hearty Christmas dinner. (Jr.-Sr. High)

New Equipment

(As displayed at the Industrial Film and Audio-Visual Exhibition, New York City, October 6-10, 1958)

Strobel-Vision has introduced two models of screens for rear-view projection. The *Salesman* is recommended for use with 16-millimeter projectors using a ¾" wide-angle lens. The projector is placed at right angles to the viewing screen and can be as close as 8" to the viewing cabinet. It is not recommended for projectors having their take-up reels extending forward and downward. The *Universal* model may be used with any projector, 8 millimeter, 16 millimeter, or filmstrip. Normal lenses are replaced with wide-angle lenses. With the *Universal* model the projector is placed about 20" to 24" from the cabinet. The picture area is about 10" by 15". Each model is adjustable to projector lens heights from 7½" to 11½". Both models, \$112.50; table, \$20; carryall cover, \$15. Strobel-Vision, 917 E. Meadow Pl., Milwaukee 17, Wis.

Teclite, a new 16-millimeter sound projector, has the following features: weight under 30 lbs.; single case; 8-inch built-in detachable speaker;

15-watt amplifier; reverse; two speeds; Rollar sprocket guards; fast rewind without change of reels or belts; cooling for 1,200-watt projection lamp; loop setter. \$495. Manufactured by Technical Service, Inc. 30865 Five Mile Road, Livonia, Mich.

Transopaque Junior, overhead transparency projector, uses parabolic mirror and optical system to produce 2,000 lumens on the screen; copy size, up to 10" by 10"; 500-watt lamp; table size, 23" by 17"; accommodates acetate roll; small projection head. \$395; folding support shelf, \$9.00; acetate roll, \$5.50; carrying case, \$60. Manufactured by Projection Optics, Inc., 271 Eleventh Ave., East Orange, N.J.

Tape-Index Tabs, to locate selections on a tape recording, are made of 1½-mil Mylar with pressure-sensitive adhesive, the same type that is used on splicing tape. These tabs will go through any tape recorder without damage to the tab or the recorder. Included in kit are 360 Mylar locators, 360 selection labels, 60 reel labels, 60 box labels, packed in dispenser box. \$9; 12 kits to a case, \$90. Permafile wallets and a tape-index master file are available also. Datrel Co., Inc., 520 Fifth Ave., New York 36, N.Y.

The United States Projector Corp. has improved and expanded its line of 16-millimeter single-frame projectors. These are designed to project single-frame pictures taken with a 16-millimeter movie camera. This provides a very cheap method of obtaining still pictures. The cheapest projector is the *Pixalog*, a manually operated 150-watt projector that will produce a 6' by 9' image. Fan cooling provides safe projection of one frame over extended periods of time. \$49.50.

The *Ava-Tech* is a silent model but uses remote control push-button advance or will operate automatically every 3½ to 7 seconds. This projector can also be connected to a tape recorder with a signal output for synchronized sound and film operation. Or it may be connected to the *Ava-Vox* tape, sound unit. *Ava-Tech*, \$152.50; *Ava-Vox*, \$99.95 to \$140. *U.S. Success-O-Vox* combines in one unit sight and sound for a half-hour presentation. An endless magazine magnetic tape supplies the sound synchronized with the endless loop of 400 frames of 16-millimeter film. \$325. For presentation on a rear-view screen 9" by 12" the *U.S. Adslide*, models A, B, C, feature silent or sound presentation with manual or automatic synchronization. \$275 to \$425. Eastern address, United States Projector Corp., 129 S. State St., Dover, Del.

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